The Nation

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Summary of the News

After respite of some three weeks from the arduous toil of destruction, German submarines have renewed their activity, directed, it would seem, principally against neutral ships and British fishing vessels. Subaqueous warfare was actively resumed on May 1, and up to the time of writing fourteen vessels have been torpedoed: seven British (of which four were trawlers), one Russian, one French, three Norwegian, one Swedish, and one American. The last, the Gulflight, an American oil steamer, from Port Arthur, Texas, flying the American flag, was torpedoed without warning at noon on May 1, when twenty-five miles west of the Scilly Isles. Two of the crew were drowned, and the captain died of heart-failure, after being rescued by a British patrol-boat. Comment on the incident will be found in our editorial columns.

In connection with this renewal of activity by German submarines and the attack on an American ship, we may note the advertisement which was inserted by direction of the German Embassy in Washington in newspapers throughout the country on the morning of May 1. The advertisement, in effect, warned American citizens against travelling on any ship flying the flag of Great Britain or her allies. The caution, however, was not extended, as apparently it should have been, to vessels flying the American flag.

The reply of the State Department to the German note on the sinking of the William P. Frye by the Prinz Eitel Friedrich was cabled, according to dispatches from Washington, to Ambassador Gerard at Berlin on April 28, but its contents have not, as we write, been made public. It is understood in Washington, however, that the note, while rebutting the contention of the German Government that, according to general principles of international law, it would not be liable for any compensation, accepts the proposal to compensate the owners of the Frye under the Prussian-American treaties of 1799 and 1828.

Reports from Italy during the past week indicate that that country is approaching nearer to war. It should be noted, however, that none of these reports can be regarded as having any official authority. What credibility they possess—and in this respect it would be as dangerous to underrate as to overrate their value—is derived simply from the fact that they reflect the trend of popular opinion in Italy. The facts of the situation as it developed last week are significant in themselves, the most important occurrence having been the summoning to a conference at Rome of the Ambassadors at Paris, London, Vienna, and Berlin. The date fixed for the opening of the Italian Parliament is May 12, but there are rumors that, in view of the delicate international situation, it may be postponed. Rumors that Italy has arrived at a complete understanding with the Allies as to her part in the war and her share in the spoils consequent on victory can, of course, be based only on speculation. Significance is attached to the decision of King Victor Emmanuel and his Ministers not to attend the unveiling of the Garibaldi monument at Quarto Sant' Elena yesterday—a decision which was announced only on Tuesday, and was doubtless taken because public opinion in advance had fixed upon the King's presence at the ceremony as virtually tantamount to a declaration of war.

Announcement was made by Secretary Daniels on April 28 of the selection by President Wilson of Capt. William Shepherd Benson as Chief of Naval Operations.

An arbitration award, to become effective on May 10, advancing to some extent the wages of locomotive engineers, firemen, and hostlers employed by ninety-eight Western railways in the United States and Canada, was signed in Chicago on April 30. The award is binding for only one year, and is stated frankly to be intended merely to postpone the actual settlement of the differences involved. A dissenting opinion was filed on behalf of the Brotherhood of Enginemen.

An analysis of the foreign commerce of the United States during the month of March, made by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, was published on May 1. These figures show that the net loss of European trade for the nine months ending with March was $34,725,231, this despite the great increase in exports due to the war. An interesting comparison is afforded by the figures of exports to Germany in March this year and last: $283,816, as compared with $28,213,120.

State law to assist Germany by prohibiting the export of arms from the United States was invoked in Wisconsin on April 29, when a certain Samuel Pearson, an ex-Boer, filed a complaint under the so-called "discovery" statute of Wisconsin to obtain information to determine whether the Allis-Chalmers Company had entered into a conspiracy with the Bethlehem Steel Company and others to manufacture and ship shrapnel shells to European belligerents, contrary to the law of Wisconsin.

Elsewhere we allude to recent activities of Dr. Dernburg. His statement on the use of poisonous gases by German troops at the battle of Ypres, in which he took occasion to make bitter complaint of the partiality of the American press, was published in the papers of April 28. On May 1, in an address before the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Dr. Dernburg qualified as "absolutely false" the statement that the German Government had disputed the right of the United States to ship or to sell arms—an utterance which a careful reading of the recent note on the subject presented by Count Bernstorff will reveal to be technically correct. Meanwhile, cables published in Monday's papers show that the views expressed by Dr. Dernburg as to the future of Belgium, which we noted last week, have aroused considerable antagonism in his own country.

Dispatches from London dated May 2 announced that, according to the *Berliner Tageblatt*, a copy of which had been received, the classes of the Landsturm for 1879 to 1876 were summoned to the colors between May 3 and May 12. The *Tageblatt* adds, according to the dispatch from London, that by June 16 the classes of 1869 and 1870—the last of the Landsturm classes liable to service—will have been called out.

Details of the British Government's proposals for dealing with the liquor question in England during the war were published in the papers of April 30. The effect of the compromise suggested by the Government has apparently been to please nobody, and it is generally supposed that portions of the measure will be dropped or radically altered.

Considerable importance is apparently to be attached to the journey of Dr. Lauro Muller, the Brazilian Minister for Foreign Affairs, to Argentina, Chili, and Uruguay. Dr. Muller commenced his journey on April 26. It is generally believed that the visits which he will pay will mark an attempt to establish a policy of Pan-Americanism, in accordance with which the South American republics will take joint action in matters pertinent to South American affairs and to relations with foreign countries which affect South America. An interesting, if somewhat alarmist letter on the question was published in the New York *Times* of April 30, in which the writer sought to show that the contemplated rapprochement of the South American republics is inimical to the United States. Formal denial of such an implication was made by Secretary Bryan in a statement to newspaper correspondents on May 1.

The situation between China and Japan remains extremely critical, and as we write rumor is rife that Japan intends to send an ultimatum to China in consequence of the rejection last week of some of the demands which had been made. It is impossible, however, from the news reports which come day by day from Tokio or Peking to obtain trustworthy information as to the status of the negotiations, and these reports should be viewed with as much suspicion as those which concern Italy or even Mexico. The situation is causing grave anxiety in England, and Liberal papers of the character of the *Daily News* have been outspoken in editorial recommendation to Japan to be moderate in her demands. "If," says the *News*, "there is any lesson which the war in Europe teaches it is that political crimes, even in so ill-contrived a world as ours, do often avenge themselves."

The deaths of the week include: Theodore S. Garnett, Alexander N. Scriabin, April 27; Prof. Henry E. Van Deman, April 28; Carson C. Peck, April 29; Edward D. Easton, Edward Delano Lindsey, April 30; James Fairchild Hudson, Charles Edgar Littlefield, John Lee, Prof. Joseph J. Hardy, Right Hon. John F. Moriarty, May 2; Mrs. Helen Burrell D'Apery (Olive Harper), Congressman Joseph A. Goulden, May 3.

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The Week

The editor of the *Fatherland* is again showing how ill he understands the country in which he is trying to make friends for the German cause. His latest blunder is the sending out of letters to various parts of the United States, asking among other foolish questions: "What is the proportion of votes which the Germans of your section control?" The obvious intent is to flourish the German vote as a club over the head of the Administration, since some of the other questions inquire about the support of Wilson in 1912 by German-Americans, and their probable attitude towards him in 1916. But some one should have told Mr. Viereck that he could hardly have hit upon a plan more stupid and self-defeating. It was tried on in Chicago last month with results disastrous to those who thought that an appeal in the name of the Kaiser and Francis Joseph would elect a Mayor in an American city. We are sure that the *Fatherland's* scheme will be resented by the great body of German-Americans themselves; while it is certain, if pressed, to react tremendously in President Wilson's favor. It may be that Mr. Viereck is really in secret a great admirer and champion of Mr. Wilson, and is merely throwing his little boomerang.

Prof. Joseph Bédier, whose publication of extracts from the diaries of German soldiers recounting savage acts will be remembered, replies in the *Revue de Paris* to some of his German critics, and adduces new examples of cruelties recorded by the war-diaries. He admits that, in his original brochure, he may have mistranslated a word now and then of the German text, but maintains—as, indeed, it cannot be denied by any one who has seen his facsimiles—that the substance of his proofs is untouched. He was then professing to give only samples of the atrocities committed; he now adds several others. Upon these we do not care to dwell; but there is a certain comfort in finding that German soldiers themselves were horrified at what went on. Thus one of them, whom Professor Bédier identifies by corps and regiment, after writing of the terrible scenes which he had witnessed, added the comment: "After all, there is an element of truth in what they say of German barbarians." And it was a German officer who wrote in his diary: "This way of making war is purely barbarous. I am astonished that we can complain of what the Russians have done, for we are conducting ourselves in France much worse."

British party politicians have been remarkably silent, *inter arma*, but their self-suppression has evidently meant a great strain. Under it they are becoming increasingly restive. For the first time in Parliament since the war broke out, a Government war-measure is seriously opposed. This happens to be a bill dealing with the liquor trade. On that subject divisions of opinion are always so sharp that it could hardly be hoped to prevent their appearance, even in the midst of a national crisis. More significant is the reopening of partisan attacks on the Liberal Government by a portion of the Tory press. Mr. Asquith and Winston Churchill have been made the principal targets for this party firing. It cannot amount to much. The country would not tolerate an attempt to upset the Government before peace comes. This applies even to the election of a new Parliament. The statutory term of the present one has only about nine months to run. A general election is talked of early in the summer, but if one is held it will be purely formal—a "no-change" election. It is even possible that the Parliament Act may be amended so as to extend the life of the present Parliament until the end of the war. Either way, the life of the Government is secure, despite the raging of certain heathen newspapers.

The dissatisfaction of both sides with the arbitration award in the dispute between the Western railways and their men will be accepted by the public as evidence that the decision is a tolerably fair one. The fact that it is only for a year makes serious opposition to it impracticable, and at the same time allows a test to be made of it that should be of aid in settling the questions at issue more permanently, if they are brought up again in 1916. That it puts an added burden upon the railways is plain, but their prompt acceptance of it, qualified only by criticisms that for the moment at least are academic, is natural enough if it be considered that the alternative might be a strike, with a resulting loss beside which the advance in pay now decreed would be negligible. The important thing from the public's point of view is that there is to be peace instead of war; if not the peace of absolute justice, which is rarely found in this imperfect world, at all events the peace of a nearer approach to that ideal than prevailed before the award was rendered. Incidentally, every decision like this one confirms the method by which it is reached; and this in itself is a great gain.

Pennsylvania's Senate on Monday passed Gov. Brumbaugh's child-labor bill without amendment. The vote was 44 to 6; and it had been preceded by a nearly three-to-one vote (37 to 13) against a motion to go into committee of the whole for the purpose of considering amendments. The result has an interest wider than that belonging to the measure itself, or to Pennsylvania politics. For it is one more testimony to the potency of two factors which have been conspicuous in the history of American government in recent years. One is the power of public opinion in effecting legislation for social-betterment; the other is the exercise by our State Governors, when they are men of courage and ability, of the function of making public opinion effective upon the Legislature. In the closing debate on the bill, the spokesman of its opponents attacked the "encroachment of the Chief Executive upon the Legislature." But this kind of encroachment—if encroachment it be—has come more and more to be recognized as supplying the one form of real leadership which is available in our State Legislatures generally. Gov. Hughes was the first to give an exhibition of it that arrested the attention of the whole country; Woodrow Wilson, when Governor of New Jersey, followed his example. Like all other leadership, and like all other power, it is liable to abuse; but it is too valuable to be rejected when exercised in a reasonable manner.

A jury at Trinidad, Col., has found John R. Lawson, member of the International Executive Board of the United Mine Workers of America, guilty of murder in the first degree, the killing in question being that of a deputy sheriff at Ludlow, on October 25, 1913. Counsel for Lawson declares that "the verdict is an unspeakable outrage." Possibly this is so; to assert the contrary would require more familiarity with the evidence than we can pretend to. But of one thing there can be no doubt. No jury of twelve men would be unanimous in declaring Lawson guilty of murder in the first degree if no crime at all had been committed by the labor men in the Ludlow camp. The monstrousness of the talk in which Chairman Walsh, of the Industrial Relations Commission, has been so freely indulging consists in the preposterous, though tacit, assumption which underlies it, that the blame for the bloody doings in Colorado is to be placed without hesitation upon the mine-owners, and in particular upon Mr. Rockefeller. If he has any trace of that sense of responsi-

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bility which should go with the trust committed to him, this verdict of the Colorado jury ought to set him to some pretty serious thinking. At least, it might avail to keep him silent for a day or two.

Few Representatives have won in so short a time the reputation that came to the late Charles E. Littlefield. Long before his nine years of service at Washington were, by his own action, ended, he had become one of the few conspicuous figures of the House, and his words were listened to and reported as were those of but very few men at either end of the Capitol. The country had become accustomed to discovering that new men from Maine were apt to outrank those from other States in intellectual calibre, but Littlefield was something of a novelty even among Maine men. Although succeeding Dingley, the high priest of protection of his day, Littlefield at once displayed a spirit of independence more often found in Congressmen from Iowa and Kansas. He disagreed with his party on the Porto Rico tariff bill, and again on the Cuban reciprocity measure. He was a vigorous advocate of anti-Trust legislation and the logical leader for such measures in the House, but President Roosevelt was not prepared to go so far as he, and their relations were affected by this difference. Littlefield's term of service began under the old system of the supremacy of the Speaker and the Rules Committee, but they were unable to smother this recalcitrant member of their party. Both his personality and his logic irresistibly lifted him above the mass. His retirement from Washington to New York, and from politics to law, was, like that of Reed, a distinct loss, not merely to his State, but to the nation. His career stands as proof that the unusual man can rise to note despite the unfavorable conditions of our hurly-burly House of Representatives.

The coördination begun in 1911 between the medical department of Columbia University and the Presbyterian Hospital led on Monday to the announcement of a plan for a joint medical institution of the highest rank, for which $10,000,000 is to be raised in the next five years. The trustees of Columbia express the hope that it will become the greatest centre in America for medical training, hospital service, and research work, and one of the greatest in the world. The cost of clinical instruction is so high, and facilities for it depend so absolutely upon large populations and close union with hospitals, that many even of the larger universities now limit their medical work to the first two years, and send their graduates to institutions like Columbia for the two final or clinical years. The best American medical colleges are said to-day to be better than the German in laboratory facilities, and equal to the English and French. In a city like New York, and on a foundation like that planned, it should be possible to build up a centre of medical teaching and research of immense new possibilities. Columbia disputes with the University of Pennsylvania the honor of being the pioneer in American medical instruction; and while its medical college has lagged in development behind other parts of the University, its recent growth has been rapid, and it possesses a corps of men of established scientific reputation who are admirably equipped to carry out the new project.

The fifth annual convention of the Drama League of America, just closed at Detroit, was notable in shifting emphasis from the task of bringing good professional productions to small centres to that of encouraging amateur dramatics. The former undertaking will not be neglected. But a new interest in stimulating high-school plays has risen from the joining of the League by many teachers, while one Northwestern institution —the "Little Country Theatre"—has succeeded so well that the League is helping to make it known in other sections. The original theatre at the Agricultural College at Fargo was "just the size of the average town hall," and has been copied so widely that in less than a year over 2,000 North Dakotans have taken part in plays, while inquiries have come from all the neighboring States. Such short plays as Percy MacKaye's "Sam Average" and John Kendrick Bangs's "The Fatal Message" are typical of the 1,600 pieces sent out by the central theatre; while one original play has been presented in twenty localities. In such a field the League can exert a greater influence than in regulating the plays given in the larger cities. The democratic amateur theatre is largely virgin soil.

A new accusation brought against Princeton students must seem terrible to our novelists and essayists. It is that they are conventional, fossilized, mid-Victorian. A poll of them reveals that their favorite novelist is, not Dostoievsky or d'Annunzio or Gissing, but Dickens; their favorite poet, not Verhaeren or Whitman, but Tennyson; their favorite dramatist, not Ibsen or Schnitzler, but Shakespeare. Could there be a more melancholy showing of the effect of our stereotyped high-school and college courses in English? In point of fact, our impression of college radicalism in literary matters is derived from two untrustworthy sources. A bare handful who do devour everything new make a great deal more noise about their reading than does the democratic mass which holds to Thackeray and Browning. Our novelists, again, exaggerate shamelessly their pictures of eager youth. The piece of fiction centring upon New York harbor which has attracted so much notice of late depicts its hero as reading Shaw and Samuel Butler about 1901, as enthusiastic over Matisse in 1905, and as using the word *sabotage* two years before it was known. No one wishes students to shut themselves off from current thought; but a little more acquaintance with even second-raters like Trollope and Clough would be of assistance to the whole public in its appraisal of our Arnold Bennetts and Vachel Lindsays. There are signs, moreover, that a few years may see "mid-Victorianism" almost as fashionable as it is now sneered at.

Some days must pass before the full measure of the Austro-German victory in western Galicia is ascertainable. That the Russians have been hit hard is apparent, and the exultant tone of the announcement from Berlin on Monday may yet be justified. When one recalls the usually restrained note of German official announcements, the assertion that the entire Russian front in western Galicia was pierced and shattered, that the enemy's retreat was hasty, and that trophies were taken which could not even be approximately estimated, seemed the forerunner of a victory of von Hindenburg size, with prisoners mounting up to the hundred-thousand mark. The Russian losses have been mounting, but a disaster like that in East Prussia appears to be out of the question. On the other hand, the strategic results may be far-reaching. The line on the Dunajec was approximately the centre of the Russian front, measuring from the Niemen to the Dniester and the Prieth. With that broken, we may expect developments of prime importance to the north and the south. If the Russians have been driven far enough east from the Dunajec, it is conceivable that their wing in the Carpathians, which had penetrated into Hungary by Dukla Pass, is left in the air and may be compelled to fall back hastily. North of the Vistula, in southern Poland, the line of the Nida, a pro-

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longation of the line of the Dunajec, may have to be abandoned. It will be a repetition of the Austro-German drive of last October, when the Teuton allies in Poland reached the Vistula at Ivangorod and stood before Warsaw, and in Galicia crossed the San and for a time relieved Przemysl. That may be reckoning too far ahead. What seems reasonably certain is that the Russian threat against Hungary is for the present at an end.

The Allied operations on the peninsula of Gallipoli would naturally consist of three phases. First comes the landing of troops and supplies and the consolidation of a base along the coast. This phase is still under way, and has been marked by heavy losses. Still heavier will be the price when the second phase begins with a struggle for the hills that lie not far from the west shore of the peninsula. They rise to a height of six or seven hundred feet and dominate the Straits. If the British succeed in planting their heaviest guns on the hills, a situation will ensue somewhat like that around Port Arthur when the Japanese succeeded in winning the crest of 203-Metre Hill. The bombardment of the forts around Kilid Bahr, at the beginning of the Narrows, will then be in order. For the control of the heights we must expect desperate fighting like that which preceded the fall of Port Arthur. That the Australians should have been selected for such heavy work shows plainly that the distinction between colonial and regular has virtually disappeared. The English army is now almost entirely a volunteer army, and a half-year's training is deemed sufficient to prepare a man for such serious business as the storming of fortified places in the Dardanelles or holding the vital spots in the Allied line, as the Canadians have done around Ypres.

The nearest possible situation for the German artillery that has been sending shells into Dunkirk is the vicinity of Lombaertzyde, north of Nieuport, or about eighteen miles from the French port. There the Germans have been established since the last days of October. Dixmude, another suggested point of emplacement, is twenty-two miles from Dunkirk. The latest dispatches speak of shells of different calibre, so that at least two guns are at work. The French War Office discounts the harm done in Dunkirk, and explains the bombardment as the effort of a disappointed enemy who has given up hope of breaking through the Allied line; this is not convincing. The bombardment of Dunkirk differs from that of Ypres or Rheims, because the latter cities might be reduced to ruins and yet remain important points of support, whereas Dunkirk is one of the ports of disembarkation for the British army, and Allied communications may suffer severely under a persistent German shelling. A single shell from the Queen Elizabeth is affirmed to have sunk a Turkish transport in the Dardanelles. It is plain that German shells from around Nieuport or Dixmude may create havoc on the Dunkirk docks. If the bombardment should compel even a partial diversion of British transport service to Calais, with consequent congestion and loss of time, the gain to the Germans would be appreciable.

OUR RELATIONS WITH GERMANY.

The torpedoing on Saturday of an American ship by a German submarine, off the Scilly Islands, resulting in the death of the captain and two or three of the crew, obviously threatens the most serious complication that has yet arisen between the United States and Germany. That our Government will make prompt and emphatic representations to Berlin admits of no doubt. The position already taken by the Administration is one from which it cannot retreat. It plainly notified the German Government that we could not recognize the pretended and patently ineffective blockade of the British Isles. And in reply to the threat of Germany that American ships, venturing into the "war zone" which she was declaring on paper, might be sunk without notice, President Wilson properly affirmed that such a course would be in gross violation of international law, and that this Government would be "constrained to hold the Imperial German Government to a strict accountability for such acts of their naval authorities."

On the basis of that warning in advance, it is certain that a strong protest will be made by the President as soon as the facts have been duly verified. He will probably ask, first, for a full explanation, and leave it open to the German Government to make such disavowal of the act of the submarine, with such reparation, as the case seems to demand. It is reasonable to expect that the matter will be amicably adjusted. For the sinking of the Frye in the Pacific, Germany quickly made amends. The present incident is, however, more grave; for it involves the whole pretension to exclude all neutral shipping from British waters, which Germany has set up. If the Gulflight had been torpedoed elsewhere, there can be no doubt that the German Government would have called it a regrettable "accident," and would have made apologies and paid damages. The difficulty, as the affair stands, is that the legitimacy of the whole method of alleged submarine blockade will be involved. On that point, Germany should know that, however firm she may be, the United States will be just as firm. In essence, the German submarine has committed an act of war upon the United States. If it was a mistake, it cannot be too soon disowned, with whatever excuses or roundabout logic German ingenuity may resort to. If it was in pursuance of a policy deliberately adopted and to be persisted in, the event is sinister and ominous beyond anything that has before happened to disturb the relations of the two countries.

On the very day of the Gulflight's torpedoing, Dr. Dernburg was speaking in Philadelphia on the attitude of our Government towards England and Germany. He asserted again that there was a manifest "unfairness" in our submitting to the exclusion of our foodstuffs from Germany, while "shipments of arms to the Allies are going on unmolested." He said that the United States was treating the two questions "differently." But if they are entirely different questions, they ought to be treated differently. And they are. When the British blockade was declared and made effective, our Government did, indeed, submit to the exclusion of cargoes, not only of food but of all other products, from German harbors. Until that time, however, as the published diplomatic notes show, it had insisted with due energy and dignity upon the maintenance of the rights of neutral shipping. But an effective blockade makes an end, for the time being, of such rights. It may be a hard law of naval warfare, but it is the law of nations. So is it the law of nations that military supplies may freely be sold by neutrals to belligerents. Even Dr. Dernburg admits this. He denies that Germany has protested against our traffic in arms as illegal. That is technically correct, though Ambassador Bernstorff must have wanted to be understood as so protesting. This is not the first time that Dr. Dernburg has taken a line of his own. His fondness for doing so makes his status in this country more and more dubious; while his usefulness here is daily brought seriously into question even by German sympathizers.

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To the unkind things which some newspapers in Germany are beginning to say of Dr. Dernburg it is not necessary to attach too much importance. He has long had his enemies in the German press and in official circles. But the growing awkwardness of his position in the United States is clearly seen by his compatriots. It is nicely calculated to make trouble both ways. The regular diplomatic representatives of Germany in this country cannot be entirely happy at seeing themselves apparently overslaughed by a man without official standing. Americans, on the other hand, are left guessing as to the exact extent of Dr. Dernburg's authority. They are inclined to feel, just as Count Ernst Reventlow does, that "it is impossible that Dr. Dernburg, without direct instructions from the Imperial Chancellor, should publicly announce in the United States the German war aims." Yet the Count believes that Dr. Dernburg has done exactly this thing, and "should furnish a correction." We doubt very much if he will furnish a correction which is intelligible, or which will not itself be in need of correction. His activity here as an unofficial mediator and champion has brought him little but misunderstanding and failure. If the German Government now concludes to recall him, the United States will certainly not object.

CLASSIC GROUND.

Upon events in the Dardanelles the attention of the world is now more closely fixed than upon the massed armies in Flanders or the Carpathians. Partly this is because of the great issues bound up with victory and defeat in this region; partly because of the scene in itself. History is being made in the world's greatest historic laboratory, the basin of the Ægean and the one hundred and fifty miles of narrow waters that divide Europe from Asia. It has been the fashion to speak of the centre of world-history as shifting from sea to sea, from the Mediterranean to the North Sea, from the North Sea to the Atlantic, from the Atlantic—after the emergence of Japan in 1905—to the Pacific. But history has a way of returning on itself. To-day the two great theatres are once more the North Sea, where England won the mastery from Spain and Holland, and the Mediterranean, on whose shores the beginnings of European history were staged. It strikes the imagination that this latest of wars, fought for such modern issues as places in the sun, trade supremacy, and balances of power, should have embraced in its sweep the earliest of historic scenes. There has been fighting in Babylonia, armies have been encamped in the shadow of Mount Sinai and the Pyramids, armies and navies are now in battle in the land of the Iliad.

Across the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus the peoples of Asia and Europe have flowed back and forth. The Iliad tells the first story of the conflict between two continents. Europe then was invading Asia. To-day the Allied armies on the Trojan plain are engaged in the task of forcing back the last persistent wave of Asiatic invasion which has held ground in Europe for more than five hundred years in the form of Ottoman rule. French ships are cruising off the mouth of the Scamander, on whose shores lay the long ships of the Achæans during the ten years' siege of Ilium. Across the Dardanelles came the hosts of Xerxes, passing by a bridge over the narrows of Nagara and Kilid Bahr, against which the British forces in Gallipoli have been thrown. On the shores of the Dardanelles the Peloponnesian War and the fate of Athens was decided in the rout of Ægospotami; and one imagines that Germans may find a happy augury in this battle, which shattered the naval empire of Athens and gave the mastery of the Hellenic world to militaristic Sparta. Across the Bosphorus and its neighboring waters came the Latin armies after the conquest of Constantinople, and in an opposite direction one hundred years later flowed the Ottoman tide which was to drive the spear of Asiatic invasion deep into the heart of Europe. It is yet to be shown that this greatest of wars arising out of European and world interests will not show its most significant results in the solution of the millennial struggle between Europe and Asia.

It is not mere historical sentimentalism which discovers meaning in the reappearance of the ancient battlefields. If the old battlegrounds emerge, it is because after 3,000 years the conflict between Europe and Asia has not been permanently settled. When reports speak of Greece demanding concessions in Asia Minor as the price of intervention on the side of the Allies, twenty-five centuries are swept away. We are back in the sixth century B. C., when Hellas was less in Europe than in Asia, when Greek civilization, art, literature, philosophy were at home in the rich cities that studded the coast of Asia Minor and the islands of the Ægean. For Greece to enter the war in quest of Asiatic territory is to recall that Greek raid against the city of Sardis which first stirred the wrath of Persia and brought on the heroic age of Hellas. A German scholar may tell us that the present Greek nation has nothing in common with the people of Leonidas and Miltiades, that the Greeks are Mediterraneanized Slavs whose only heritage is a language which Demosthenes could neither have pronounced nor understood. But the historic legend, whether based on fact or myth, is powerful in shaping the efforts of a people. In proportion to its present lowly condition, it will go back as far as necessary to a past which it can lay claim to for its own, a past which serves both for inspiration and justification.

What the Mediterranean shows is not only a welter of nationalities, but a confusion of historic pasts. The Balkans are a patchwork of traditions as well as of races. By going back far enough every one of the Balkan nations can make out something of a claim to supremacy in the peninsula. Greece can argue either from early Hellenic times or from the Greek empire of the Middle Ages. Bulgaria may go back to the great times of Simeon in the tenth century, or Ivan II in the thirteenth century. Servia, in striving for the restoration of the fourteenth-century empire of Stephan Dushan, overlaps the claims of Bulgarians and Greeks. These memories may not have been always vivid among the hostile populations, but they have been kept alive through stress and defeat by the national bards, the historians, and the schoolmasters, an academic folk who, nevertheless, as the guardians of sentiment, have again and again shown themselves to be the makers of history. From the time when the Dardanelles were the Hellespont and Constantinople was the Greek colony of Byzantium, the tradition has managed to keep alive.

If decisive events shall be witnessed on the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, if the outcome of the war shall be settled there, as is not unlikely, there will stand revealed a certain inherent logic of history. For the specific causes of the present war, we must go back to Constantinople. If the Young Turks had not deposed Abdul Hamid, if chaos had not supervened in Turkey, if the Balkan peoples had not seized the opportunity to vindicate their national aspirations, if unexpected success against the Turks had not inflamed the imagination of Serbs and Greeks on the one hand, and aroused wrath in Austria on the other, the world might not now be in arms. At Constantinople the train was fired, and at Constantinople the conflagration may be extinguished.

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CIVILIAN CONTROL OF THE NAVY.

The critics of Secretary Daniels, being driven from one position after another, are now making a stand against him on the ground that he has "personally blasted all hope of establishing that centralized, responsible military control which is the greatest need of the navy." Ex-Secretary Meyer has again joined in the hue and cry by demanding a naval budget of a large lump sum from Congress, to be expended by the Secretary and his naval advisers alone, as they see fit; and also a national council of defence, which shall all by itself formulate the defence policies of the nation. The Navy Department clique, which is so upset over the failure of Secretary Daniels to appoint Rear-Admiral Fiske to the new position of Chief of Naval Operations, is also ringing the changes on this question; while the New York *Tribune* declares that if Secretary Daniels had only "consented, the navy would now have to all intents and purposes a General Staff." But the unpatriotic North Carolinian has selfishly, it is alleged, "begrudged surrendering that inexpert civilian control through his own office."

Well, if Mr. Daniels had done any less, it strikes us that he would have been faithless to a fundamental policy of this Government. It is precisely civilian control over things military and naval. The founders of the Republic wrote that policy into the Constitution because they had had some personal experiences with British military control which made them particularly insistent that civilian officials should be in charge. To turn over the framing of our army and navy policies to-day to the proposed national council, comprising, as we understand it, a majority of military and naval men, would be as dangerous a step towards militarism as could well be imagined. Buttressed by the absurd theory that military and naval experts should decide how much money we should expend for army and navy, when they are in no wise charged with the responsibility either for raising the money therefor, or for ascertaining what is the real public sentiment as to armaments and war policies, we might then have a situation precisely analogous to that of Germany to-day. There, the German General Staff dictates to the Reichstag what it wants; and, moreover, formulates the public opinion of the nation on matters military. As the war has clearly shown, the German General Staff officers are the masters of the nation, and not its servants.

Exactly the same thing is what lurks behind the proposal to substitute with us complete military control for civilian. The General Board of the Navy has raged because some of the Secretaries of the Navy and Congress regularly have refused to follow its recommendations as to the size of the navy. They have preferred to put their inexpert opinion above the expert. In our judgment, they have been both wise and patriotic in so doing. The expert in any field is subject to bias; and the military and naval experts particularly take counsel of their fears of attack from one source or another. From them emanate many alarums of war, while their narrow training, totally different from that of the civilian legislator or the civilians charged with the carrying on of foreign and national policies, often makes them dangerous national advisers. We know what a cry would go up if it should be proposed to turn over the conduct of our national affairs to a general staff of physicians and surgeons, on the ground that the dangers from unsound immigrants, from the spread of insanity, and the annual waste of human life due to preventable disease, made necessary the placing in their hands of our national policies and the unrestricted expenditure of some $250,000,000 a year.

As for ex-Secretary Meyers's proposal that Congress vote a lump sum to be expended annually by the Navy Department, this is so absurd as hardly to merit serious treatment. Congress would never consent to it, and neither would the American people, particularly not at this hour when the European military experts are so completely discredited in their prophecies as to the insurance value of large armaments, and as to the actual happenings in the progress of hostilities. Could experts be more thoroughly discomfited than the war-lords of the German General Staff? Pro-Germans in plenty do not hesitate to say to us that it has completely overreached itself, that its Belgian policy was a crime, and that its chief folly has been due to a total inability to understand what was involved in national policies and national sentiment abroad. Never were military men so fortunately situated; everything was in their favor in a nation which obeyed their slightest wish, and never have men so written themselves down as hopeless blunderers.

We do not believe for a moment that with this warning example before them the citizens of this country will be tempted to turn over its military and naval affairs to uniformed diagnosticians.

THE REGULATION OF FILMS.

Wherever it goes, the "Birth of the Nation" film arouses widespread indignation. In Boston the excitement has been at white heat, because of a series of hearings before Mayor, Governor, and a committee of the Legislature. A judge has been found with authority and courage enough to cut out the most objectionable scene. The press has been full of arguments for and against the film and the proposed legislation. Many clergymen have preached about the play; and ex-President Eliot, speaking in a Cambridge church, was one of those who protested against its falsification of history. Never before have the colored people of Boston been so united and determined, or appeared to better advantage, and their white friends have rallied in great force to their aid. Gov. Walsh, ex-Congressman McCall, and Lieut.-Gov. Cushing have spoken out emphatically against permitting the play to continue, though the Mayor sided with the producers —as the Mayor of New York has failed to recognize in his utterances the gravity of the situation, or to rise to the emergency, being content with the promise of certain slight excisions, which appear to be of little or no value. The play continues to do its devilish work of misrepresentation and of arousing race hatred.

That Mayor Mitchel has had little legal authority to deal with the play is admitted, though there are differences of opinion as to just what powers were available. But this alleged lack of authority is to be remedied by an ordinance now before the Board of Aldermen to empower the Commissioner of Licenses to revoke, suspend, or annul any moving-picture license "for cause after a trial." The ordinance further reads:

> Proof shall be taken before the Commissioner of Licenses upon notice of not less than two (2) days to the proprietor, manager, or person in charge of said place, to show cause why such license should not be revoked, annulled, or suspended. The Commissioner of Licenses shall hear the proofs and allegations in each case, and determine the same, and any place the license for which shall have been revoked, annulled, or suspended shall not thereafter be licensed again to the same licensee within one year, under the provisions of said sections. On any examination before a Commissioner of Licenses, pursuant to a notice to show cause as aforesaid, the accused party may be a witness in his own behalf.

This plainly constitutes the Commissioner of Licenses a censor of all moving-picture plays, precisely as the Mayor of every town in Massachusetts, except Boston, now has similar powers. That the plan has its defects is obvious, for a Commissioner of Li-

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censes with bad judgment might work a considerable amount of harm.

But this risk is inevitable with any censorship, and no bill has as yet been suggested to the Massachusetts Legislature—which is bent on passing some measure before it adjourns—that is free from defects of one kind or another, save the proposal to put Boston on an equal footing with the other cities of Massachusetts. The truth is that this new means for public amusement and education has brought with it grave perils which we are only just beginning to realize, for side by side with its educational possibilities are the dangers of unrestricted propaganda. As the Rev. Dr. Crothers has pointed out, we have lulled ourselves into a sense of security by repeating to ourselves that the "past at least is secure." But along comes this play, which is not only designed to make large sums for its promoters, but is admittedly a deliberate propaganda to degrade and injure ten millions of citizens, besides misrepresenting some of the noblest figures in our past, Stevens, Sumner, and Lincoln, and perverting history, if only by the onesidedness of its portrayal. Now, let us suppose, as Dr. Crothers has also suggested, that others inspired by this shameful example turn to religious propaganda, and represent the horrible murdering of Catholics at Drogheda by Cromwell, or the massacre of Protestants on St. Bartholomew's night—what then?

Undoubtedly, the tortures of the Inquisition would make effective capital against the Pope at Rome; and if moving pictures had existed in 1898, we might have seen a still more vindictive anti-Spanish crusade by films of battle, or devastation, or reconcentrado camps. Pictures of Russian pogroms would make plenty of money, yet rouse bitter national and racial antipathies. Obviously, the feeling that would result from a religious film-propaganda might lead to most serious breaches of the peace. If a mild, gentle, humorous philosopher like Dr. Crothers admits that the offending film in Boston stirred his heart to mutiny and rage, the potentialities for evil in less-balanced minds need no stressing. What makes the matter worse is that it is not a question of dealing with a single theatrical production, for the film can be duplicated so that the objectionable performance may be going on in forty or more cities at the same moment. It is not surprising, in view of this power for evil, that the United States Supreme Court on February 23 last in three unanimous decisions upheld the laws of Ohio and Kansas creating official censors. "We would have," it said, "to shut our eyes to the facts of the world to regard the precaution unreasonable or the legislation to effect it a mere wanton interference with personal liberty." The Court plainly had in mind the difficulty of controlling by public sentiment alone a series of films scattered over the whole country.

Yet so excellent a newspaper as the Boston *Advertiser* feels that the proposed censorship may be a most dangerous infringement of our freedom of speech and of expression, on a par with the efforts to suppress Garrison and Phillips in anti-slavery days. The Boston *Transcript* and *Herald* appear to believe that if one bill proposed should become a law any citizens who indulged in a fight over a play could stop it, and that any play with a lesson to teach or one which undertook to dwell on the weaknesses of a group of our citizens might easily be driven off the stage. The plan of an official censor for whom the Mayor is responsible, with such a trial as is provided in the pending Aldermanic ordinance in New York, seems for the moment the best way out.

WALLACK'S.

Wallack's is happy in its ending. It makes an honorable exit, in circumstances not unworthy of its ancient renown, unthreatened by the prospect of slow and miserable decay. In the last few weeks of its existence it once more became the abode of a capable stock company, engaged, under intelligent direction, in the representation of old and new comedy. Thus the traditions inherent in the name were respected at the final curtain, after a neglect of many years. The real Wallack's, of course—with all that the title implied—vanished long ago, with the death of Lester Wallack and the disappearance of the famous organization of which he was the head. It may be worth while to recall what that institution was and—for there are many hazy notions on the subject—what it stood for.

Only the oldest playgoers, and not very many of them, can remember it at its best. The founder of it, J. W. Wallack the elder, who first came to this country in 1818, nearly a hundred years ago, when he won instant popularity as Macbeth, Romeo, Hamlet, and Richard III, had acted with W. R. Elliston and Edmund Kean and witnessed the performances of Kemble and Mrs. Siddons. He thus profited by the example of the most eminent professors of the old classic and more modern schools, and there can be no doubt that he himself was an actor of great natural ability as well as an apt pupil. During 1837-39 he was manager of the old National Theatre, at Church and Leonard Streets, in New York city, which thus, in fact, was the first Wallack's. Thirteen years later he assumed charge of the Brougham Lyceum in Broome Street, near Broadway, which he conducted until 1861, when he removed to the new Wallack's on Thirteenth Street, to which his son Lester succeeded when he died in 1864. There Lester remained until he migrated, in 1882, to the Wallack's which is now to be torn down. He died in 1888. Wallack's administration, therefore, endured for thirty-six consecutive years, and, as a whole, it is one of the most memorable in theatrical annals.

Any attempt to review it in detail within the prescribed limits of this article would be ridiculous, but it is possible to note some of the salient characteristics to which it owed its prolonged prosperity and eminence. It is commonly cited as a notable citadel of the higher comedy, in prose or verse, and this, in its best estate, it undoubtedly was, although it shared this distinction with other theatres in Boston and Philadelphia. But it was also something more. It was a veritable Temple of the Drama, in which every form of theatrical composition, except the severest tragedy, found capable interpretation. J. W. Wallack, when he undertook the responsibilities of management, naturally used the best stock companies on both sides of the Atlantic as his models, and surrounded himself with the best available acting material, not with a haphazard collection of utility performers. In the list of his first company may be found the names of Charles Walcot, Lester Wallack, William R. Blake, John Brougham, and Laura Keene, each one an accomplished artist. Thus supported, he was able to win not only critical but popular approval in such old standard pieces as "The Wonder," "The Belle's Stratagem," "The Love Chase," "Don Cæsar de Bazan," and "The Iron Chest"—of which the modern generation of playgoers scarcely know the names—while a great variety of contemporaneous pieces, sentimental, farcical, or melodramatic, were included in his repertory. Emphatically an actor of the old legitimate school, he depended largely upon plays coming under the somewhat elastic category known as legitimate drama, embracing everything between Shakespeare and Sheridan Knowles, but was never afraid to vary his programmes with later inventions.

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But whatever he did was well done. The play might be good, bad, or indifferent, but the names of the actors employed give assurance that the performance was at least thoroughly capable. Under his guidance Wallack's became the principal theatre of the city, if not of the country, and the policy he established was followed by his son, Lester, during his brilliant reign in the Thirteenth Street Theatre.

At that time Lester Wallack was a favorite of Fortune. A man of fascinating personality, he was a skilful and authoritative, but not a great, actor. Nor was he a great manager, although he was shrewd enough to profit by some of the lessons he had learned. Luxurious in his tastes, he lacked the histrionic zeal and power of his father, and he was more of an opportunist. But he never permitted the all-round excellence of his company to degenerate until, in his later days, the changing conditions of the theatre made it virtually impossible to find able recruits. It was in Thirteenth Street that he won his chief triumphs. Among his players there, John Gilbert, John Brougham, Charles Coghlan, J. L. Stoddart, Harry Beckett, Charles Walcot, H. J. Montague, Charles Fisher, Fred Robinson, W. Davidge, Mrs. Hoey, Madeleine Henriques, Rose Eytinge, Madame Ponisi, Ada Dyas, Effie Germon, and Rose Coghlan, recur at once to mind. And there were others scarcely less distinguished. Outstanding in the memory are performances of "The Rivals," "The School for Scandal," "Much Ado," "As You Like It," "Wild Oats," "The Road to Ruin," "She Stoops to Conquer," "Money," "Diplomacy," "A Scrap of Paper," "London Assurance," "Caste," "School," "Home," "Ours," and "The Captain of the Watch." "Rosedale" and "The Veteran" ought to be mentioned, perhaps, as Lester Wallack "specialties." It is a notable record, but not all Wallack's plays were upon this level. "The Silver King," indeed, was one of the best of modern melodramas, and "The Shaughraun" an exceedingly clever bit of theatricalism, but such pieces as "Moths," "Forbidden Fruit," "My Awful Dad," the cheap sensations of G. R. Sims, and other kindred productions, were lamentable blots upon the dignity of the house, although they helped to fill the treasury. Reference to them, and to their success, is made only to prove the general capacity and adaptability of the company, a point of special significance in these days, when actors, for lack of adequate training, can only shine, and that not very brilliantly, in the particular line of parts which may happen to fit their own personality.

Herein is to be found the most obvious moral of the old Wallack's. It is pleasant to think of the old playhouse at its meridian, when it enjoyed the patronage—in a measure of which no single theatre existing to-day can boast—of the great body of intelligent playgoers, for the simple reason that, no matter what the nature or quality of the play, they could be reasonably sure of a feast of good acting.

Foreign Correspondence

THE BOGEY OF BRITISH NAVALISM—COMMERCIAL JEALOUSY—LINCOLN'S TASK AND ENGLAND'S.

By JAMES F. MUIRHEAD.

LONDON, April 16.

It must be admitted that when a non-Briton unrolls the map of the world and sees how much of it is colored red, there may be some reason for a gasp or two. When he goes on to consider that Great Britain also exercises something very like dominion over the much larger part of the map that is colored blue, and holds that the real frontier of her Empire is the three-mile limit of neutral water, he may certainly be excused for thinking that here is something to stagger the non-British portion of humanity. If his historical memory is active, he may recall the bombardment of Copenhagen and the seizure of the Danish fleet in 1807 and the impressment of American seamen in 1812, and may wonder whether a victorious Britain might not be disposed to similar action in the future.

A dispassionate consideration of the naval history of the last century would, however, surely do much to dispel his alarm. It is true that Britannia has more or less ruled the waves during this period, but surely it has been in her capacity of trustee for the world and with the virtual, or even the deliberate, acquiescence of the other Great Powers. The British fleet has acted merely as the police of the ocean, and it would be difficult to prove any serious aggressiveness against it. One of the implied conditions of England's naval sway has been her recognition of the equal rights and liberties of the vessels of all other nations; and it cannot be truthfully alleged that she has been guilty of any important or deliberate breach of this understanding. Moreover, the great size of the British navy has been the natural and inevitable result of her colonial expansion and the scattered nature of her Empire, and has needed no allegation of desire for world-dominion as a *raison d'être*. "Defence, not Defiance," is a motto of real validity in this matter. Admiral Mahan has told us how a strong navy can be based on nothing except sea-power in the matter of peaceful commerce; and surely, in all conscience, Great Britain has had enough of the latter to make the former an obvious and unmenacing necessity. And I should like to add here, at the risk of entering on more controversial ground, that the growth of the British Empire has, in the view of many of the most moderate and impartial students of British history, been by no means a tale of conscious aggression, or deliberate intention of conquest. The most eminent of all our colonies—the territory that formed the nucleus of the great country now known as the United States—so far from being the result of a deliberate national policy of aggrandizement, was largely founded in consequence of disagreements at home, and the withdrawal of discontented citizens from their motherland. In other words, it was the result not of a national policy but of disagreement with a national policy.

These considerations, however, have now little but an academic interest. It is obvious that, after the close of this war, even if we assume the success of the Allies, there is likely to be no field in which the change will be greater than in that of ocean sway. The apparent passing of the Dreadnought and the coming of the submarine (to mention no other cause) seem to make this inevitable. It is hardly likely that Britannia's command of the ocean will ever be quite so far-reaching or undisputed as it has been in the past, unless some very unforeseen developments take place. So far as present conditions indicate, the policing of the seas will probably have to pass from the trustee to the board of directors. Delegation will have to give way to coöperation. All the great naval Powers will have to unite in the task; and not the least prominent rôle will fall to the lot of the United States, convinced of the necessity of free trade and free shipping. And no doubt the new laws of the sea will be laid down very largely on the lines which the United States has always advocated in such matters as the protection of cargoes by the neutral flag.

The idea that commercial jealousy of Germany was an effective agent in producing the war may be dismissed as quite untenable. No doubt, such jealousy existed; it is not in ordinary human nature to see one's self rivalled or outstripped by a competitor without a grudge. And it was, moreover, much easier to indulge emotions of jealousy and annoyance than to take active and toilsome measures of counteraction. But no one, outside of a few British Bernhardis (usually with foreign names), a section of the yellow press, and one or two not very important reviews, ever seriously considered that commercial competition could be effectively met by anything except superiority in its own line. No sensible or even normal person, so far as I know, ever hinted that any commercial advantage we might hope for through war would be more than dust in the balance as compared with what we should lose. The predominant economic conviction here was that the richer Germany became, the better customer she would be for us; and the steadily rising figures of our trade with her show how much advantage to us lay in her increased purchasing power. Count Hermann Keyserling has recently pointed out that the old formulas (still generally accepted on the Continent of Europe) of British "mercantilism" and "disregard of other nations' rights" have long ceased to be adequate and are now merely misleading. Among the many proofs of this is the absolutely open door we show to foreign traders both at home and in our colonies. British South Africa owes a good deal of its prosperity to the German merchants who by deliberate preference have taken refuge there from the armed sentries and omnipresent uniforms of the neighboring

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German colonies. Indeed, so impressed by this state of affairs was a friend of mine from Cape Colony that he used to assert (with at least a certain amount of serious intent) that if Germany ever defied the Monroe Doctrine and seized Brazil, one of the immediate results would be the migration of the German settlers in Brazil to the colonies of some less bureaucratic country than their own fatherland. The same level-headed qualities that make Englishmen successful in trade, make them see that war is emphatically bad business. The only admission I am willing to make on this point is that great prosperity may certainly lead Jeshurun to wax fat and kick; but such action would be subconscious and automatic rather than deliberate; and in this particular case the charge would lie equally at the doors of both combatants.

Yesterday, the fiftieth anniversary of the death of Abraham Lincoln, has been commemorated in England by meetings and articles in newspapers. The similarity between his task and that now before British people has made us recall his noble example with the keenest of interest, and it has been an inspiration to remember his quiet and persevering courage and his unwavering belief in the righteousness of his cause. He, like our leaders, had to bring home to many of his countrymen the magnitude and vital importance of the contest in which they were engaged, and he, too, had to stamp armies out of the ground. He recognized that military force was the only way to put an end to the Civil War; and, great democrat though he was, he did not shrink from conscription as the ultimate resort. This memory will assuredly make Americans feel that we also shall not be untrue to our traditions if we have finally to use the same weapon, unlikely and needless as that may seem at present.

ART IN THE SHADOW OF WAR—SHAKESPEARE IN PARIS—EXHIBITS FROM THE RUINS.

PARIS, April 15.

The pursuit of art under the difficulties of war recalls an instance of the time of peace. In 1877, six years after Alsace and Lorraine had been torn from France, "L'Ami Fritz" of Erckmann-Chatrian was to be produced by the Comédie Française. The German Ambassador in Paris was on the alert, for Germany still spoke loudly on little provocation from France. In the text, Fritz should lift his glass and say: "I drink to the health of Old Alsace." The Ambassador notified the French Foreign Office that this would be considered a piece of bravado across the Rhine, and in the name of his Government he demanded that the unlucky phrase should be suppressed. The Foreign Office went to the Interior and the Interior to the Fine Arts; and the theatre was held up until the authors should find a way out of the difficulty. The first night arrived and Frédéric Fèbvre, a great artist, came out as Fritz. At the appropriate moment he raised his glass amid his expectant comrades and said, very simply and solemly: "I drink to the health of you know who!" The comrades uncovered and stood silent. The audience began to understand and broke into a hurricane of applause. The German protest, which had not been made public, had overreached itself.

This year, Gémier, who directs the Théâtre Antoine, where so much cosmopolitanism found room in the past, has struck out an original idea against the German director, Reinhart, who has said: "Berlin offers Shakespeare a refuge against his unworthy country!" Gémier belongs to the "Friends of the Blind," that is, of soldiers blinded in the war, an association under the presidency of Pasteur's son-in-law, Vallery-Radot. They put their heads together for a theatrical benefit, Painters, musicians, and actors were found eager to help. It was decided to present "A Midsummer Night's Dream" in novel surroundings. The stage should be a circus ring and the comic parts should be taken by ten of the best clowns left in Paris. Well-known actors represent the nobler personages; the prettiest actresses vie with each other in the rôle of Athenian beauties; and the *premières danseuses* of the Opéra and the Opéra Comique, with acrobats and a numerous ballet corps, are Titania's fairies.

Then came the question of the music. Before the war, there would have been no hesitation possible. There was the consecrated music of Mendelssohn—a German! This was not to be thought of now. It has ended by music being taken from published and unpublished pieces of composers of the Allies—Debussy, Ravel, Roussel, Erik Satie, Le Flem, Armande de Polignac, Rimsky-Korsakoff, and Igor Stavinsky. An orchestra of sixty instruments has been made up from the state opera companies. And so war gives a chance for the new music, while rescuing Shakespeare for the Allies.

An exhibition of what the Allied troops were unable to save has been set up in Châlons on the Marne. Two halls contain precious examples of mediæval art rescued from the ruined churches of the region, which have been demolished in the inroads of the enemy. Like the provincial churches of many other parts of France, these buildings and their sacristies had remains of art which had outlasted all past wars. There are chalices, crosses, and candlesticks of precious metal work, broken or half-melted; and there are mutilated and calcined statues.

The most important piece is a fifteenth-century reredos from Mesnil-les-Hurlus—a name often in late bulletins from the battle trenches. There is a partly burned ancient missal from Etrepey. The silver lamps of Sommesons are reduced to ingots. From the ashes of Heilz-le-Maurupt a censor was saved; from Maurupt a chalice; from Sermaize an ostensory. From the village of Huiron there is a stick of charred wood—with a part of a mitre cunningly carved at one end. It was the statue of some bishop of feudal times. There is a fragment of a statue of St. Anne from the church of Viaux.

One piece of sculptured design has the air of a puzzle; it is the tail of the weathercock which overtopped what was the church of Buisson. For now, in the midst of what had been a village for untold centuries, utterly nothing is left. Of the fifteenth-century church, which was partly in ancient wood, there remains an excavation which was the crypt, with ashes and lime—and a crumbled altar-stone on which can still be seen the sculpture of the Paschal Lamb. It is all that the tempest of fire and iron of September 6, 1914, suffered to persist in being. Where the cemetery was, little wooden crosses, each with a name and regimental number, have been placed over new graves of soldiers fallen on the spot. The old grave-digger, hovering over his charge, points near by, where the Prussians buried their dead.

Better, for art's sake, that an army of collectors, paid by American millionaires for their museums and galleries, had been let loose on this soil filled with the monuments and memorials of a thousand years of history. The entire region has been left as naked as our own Western wildernesses after a forest fire. At Rambercourt-aux-Pots, amid the blackened stones tumbled to earth, an old woman tends her smoking fire in a sort of silo, where she cooks for the gendarmes wandering sadly through the solitude. Matthew Arnold imagined the aspirations of Man lingering on in remnants of his Art:

> Gray time-worn marbles
> Hold the pure Muses:
> . . . . .
> Yet not on Helicon
> Kept they more cloudless
> Their noble calm.

Saints and shrines have not fared so well in this war. S. D.

THE GERMAN PRESS IN HOLLAND—DUTCH SUSPICIONS OF AGGRESSION.

THE HAGUE, April 10.

The very same day on which Baron von Kühlmann entered upon his new function of German Minister at The Hague, the first number of a new weekly with confessedly pro-German sympathies made its appearance. It appealed for support to all those readers in Holland who were dissatisfied with the hostile attitude of the majority of the Dutch press towards their German neighbors. On a glaring red cover it bears the title of *De Toekomst* (The Future), evidently inspired by that of Maximilian Harden's clamorous organ. Even if the contents of this first instalment were to leave any doubt as to the tendencies of this futuristic periodical, the name of the editor would suffice to give one certainty on that score. For he is one of the rare advocates of a closer union of Holland with Germany, of her entry into the German customs-union.

The bulk of the nation, however, is too fond of its independence to relish the idea of economic annexation, however much the prosperity of the people might be enhanced by it. And the general aversion to such a plan has become intensified since official statements from Berlin have given the Dutch some reason to fear that Germany hopes for more than Holland's simple entry into the Zollverein. The Dutch press, of whose partial attitude *De Toekomst* complained, has not failed to draw the nation's attention to the telegram of the German Foreign Secretary to Prince Lichnowsky of August 4, 1914 ("Correspondence Respecting the European Crisis," No. 157), in which the latter is requested to "dispel any mistrust that may subsist on the part of the British Government with regard to our intentions, by repeating most positively formal assurance that, even in the case of armed conflict with Belgium, Germany will, under no pretence whatever, annex Belgian territory. Sincerity of this declaration is borne out by the fact that we solemnly pledged our word to Holland strictly to respect her neutrality. It is obvious that we could not profitably annex Belgian territory without making at the same time territorial acquisitions at expense of Holland."

It is the last remark that, in the eyes of the Dutch, has since received a new and ominous meaning. From utterances of responsible German politicians and papers the impression is gathered that, in spite of the Foreign

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Secretary's promise quoted above, Belgium's final annexation is seriously contemplated by the nation if not by the Government. Herr Bassermann, the leader of the national-liberal party, has openly admitted, in an address to members of his party in the Reichstag, that the occupation of Belgium was to be permanent: "Let us keep what we have won and try to get everything we want. Through bloody war to glorious victory, that is the cry for this great time." And, in accordance with this confession by a responsible politician, a map of Belgium published in the October issue of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* indicates that country, inclusive of the not yet conquered district of West Flanders, as the "Général-Gouvernement Belgien." It would be unjust to accuse the Dutch of hostile feelings against Germany. German music and German learning have always met with unstinted appreciation in Holland, and the Dutchman is cool-headed enough to save his admiration of German genius from getting choked up in the heat of his indignation at the terrible fate of Belgium. But he cannot help feeling suspicious as to the plans that are hatched at Berlin, and in the light of the Foreign Secretary's telegram of August 4 and Herr Bassermann's confession of German wishes this suspicion seems fully justified.

A. J. Barnouw.

Notes from the Capital

THE WAYS OF TUMULTY.

How large a part the Secretary to the President of the United States plays in the shaping of his chief's career has been shown repeatedly during the last thirty years. Lamont was the unobtrusive but always efficient adviser of Cleveland, who never ventured upon an important step in the course of public duty without "consulting Dan." It is true that a few of the biggest and finest things he did were done in defiance of Lamont's advice, but these were outnumbered, twenty to one, by the mistakes which Lamont's shrewd counsels saved him from committing. Cortelyou did not fill so intimate an office for McKinley, who was the cleverest politician in the United States, with the possible exception of his good friend Hanna, when he came into the White House; but for the preservation of some of the most dramatic thoughts and most "ringing" phrases that history associates with the name of McKinley, the world owes Cortelyou more than it will ever suspect until it can wring a confession from his closely guarded lips.

Roosevelt preferred his own intuitions to anybody's elaborated judgments, even those of so faithful and far-seeing a friend as Loeb; nor had he any need to employ a publicity manager; but Loeb made himself invaluable by fearlessly putting on a brake now and then, keeping an imprudently effervescent letter in cold storage overnight, or reminding the President of some factor which was in danger of being overlooked in the solution of an imminent problem. Taft was too impatient of admonition or restraint to have made an effective use of a thoroughly competent Secretary, if he had been blessed with one. Wilson, also, is headstrong, and would not submit to much jerking at the curb; but when he is inclined to bolt he can appreciate the usefulness of a hand on the reins which can be trusted at least to keep him out of the ditch. And that hand is Tumulty's.

Possibly Tumulty would not claim the credit of having "discovered" Wilson: there are so many aspiring Democrats who do that he would be lost in the crowd. But he probably comes nearer to deserving it than most of the rest. The truth is, the two men discovered each other about simultaneously, when Wilson appeared as a candidate for the Governorship of New Jersey, and Tumulty was a comparatively new member of the Legislature at Trenton. Tumulty was a progressive in a nest of hard-and-fast Democratic politicians. Wilson was doing the watchful-waiting act in a field where his rivals were bending all their strength to the upbuilding of personal "machines" and factional "systems." Wilson took note of Tumulty's advanced ideals and his courageous and nimble-witted way of going at their accomplishment. Tumulty recognized in Wilson a man with definite notions of what a Governor could do towards pushing forward the interests of the State, and it took him a very short while to perceive that in Wilson's success lay his own best hope of putting through some measures of legislation he had long had in mind. So, when Wilson sent for Tumulty, and took him into the closest of confidence regarding the conduct of the campaign, it was like a case of love at first sight, and they lost no time in entering into a partnership which has lasted unstrained to this day.

It would not require an expert like the hero of Shaw's "Pygmalion" to discern the pedigree of Joseph Patrick Tumulty: it is stamped, not only on his name, but all over him. The "broth of a boy," blond in type, round-faced, emotional-eyed, chubby-framed, ready of retort, could have sprung originally from only one soil, no matter how many generations of transplanted stock may have intervened between the parent root and the latest scion. His quickness of utterance has no hint of sloppiness in it. He knows how to hold his tongue in as many different languages as Elihu Burritt could speak, and when he expresses himself it is with no uncertainty of meaning. His memory, not only of names and faces, but of petty personal details, is a standing wonder to the party time-servers who, having worked with every anti-Wilson clique till starved into surrender, try to bury the past under a heap of mortgages on the future. Tumulty has a fund of reminiscence on which to draw when these late-comers grow most importunate, and most of them are forced, like the ruler who lacked one thing, to go away sorrowful.

When we recall that in early life Lincoln split rails, Johnson was a tailor, Grant tanned hides, Garfield drove a team on the canal, and Cleveland wrapped parcels in a country store, a reflected interest attaches to the youthful ambition of Tumulty to be a carpenter. Indeed, it appears to have been this taste which brought him into close companionship with a rosy-cheeked little schoolmate who was the daughter of a practical builder, and who now shares his responsibility for a family of six frisky young Tumultys. After seeing his domestic background, it is easier to understand the Secretary's adroitness in getting rid of the over-strenuous, the persistently inquisitive, and the broadly discursive visitors at the White House, without making himself a pitiful victim, or losing his patience, or giving needless offence. The President would scarcely know which way to turn if he were taken suddenly out of Tumulty's keeping and any one less resourceful were to attempt to order his days for him. It is Tumulty who says who shall see him, on what business, and when; who keeps an eye on the clock, and manages to have a special errand in the private office as soon as the minute has arrived for cutting off an interview, and who generally regulates the material side of the miniature world in which he lives. Though he does not assume to manage the President's tremendous task, he makes it possible for the President himself to manage it without prematurely wearing out both mind and body.

Vieillard.

Book Notes and Byways

HAKEWILL'S "APOLOGIE."

By A. H. Bullen.

Of the many folios packed with curious learning that have come down from the seventeenth century not the least interesting is "An Apologie or Declaration of the Power and Providence of God in the Government of the World," by Dr. George Hakewill (1578-1649), sometime rector of Exeter College, Oxford, and its generous benefactor. His elder brother William was famous as a jurist and antiquary; and in succeeding generations, down to our own times, members of this old Devonshire family of Hakewill have in various ways won distinction.

George Hakewill was a fairly voluminous writer, but his chief claim to remembrance rests on his "Apologie." In 1615 Bishop Goodman had published "The Fall of Man," wherein he labored to show that Nature and Man are decaying. Hakewill took up the opposite position, and after long years of elaborate study issued, in 1627, his weighty treatise; a second edition, enlarged, appeared in 1630, and a third—again enlarged—in 1635. For the Cambridge "Commencement" of 1628 Hakewill's "Apologie" was chosen as the thesis for disputation, and Milton (then a student at Christ's) wrote a copy of Latin hexameters "Naturam non pati senium" in support of Hakewill's contention. Samuel Pepys in 1667 read the "Apologie" and did satisfy himself "mighty fair that the world do not grow old at all"; and in the next century, as we know from Boswell, it was one of Dr. Johnson's favorite books.

The treatise is dutifully dedicated "To my Venerable Mother the Famous and Flourishing Universitie of Oxford," and the dedicatory epistle is followed by a preface in which Hakewill explains that the work was originally taken in hand for his own private satisfaction. Later, when he came to consider that his labors were for the vindication of God's glory and the advancement of learning, he resolved to make his book "publique for the publique good." He remarks pathetically, "While I have laboured to free the world from old age I feel it creeping upon myself."

Book I treats of "this pretended decay in generall." In the first section of the first chapter Hakewill deals with Divinity and contends that erroneous opinions thereupon were more common in former times than in his own day. There is much in this section,

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and in the four that follow, to remind us of Sir Thomas Browne's "Vulgar Errors" that appeared a few years after the "Apologie." Very curious are some of the examples that Hakewill gives of the far-fetched and fantastic opinions held on Biblical subjects by old-time scholars. For instance, many had contended that our first parents spent but a single day in Paradise. Tostatus once held this view, but "upon better advice" recanted, doubtless coming to see—with another old scholar—that "so many and so different acts are by Moses recorded to have passed between their Creation and Ejection as could not well be dispatched within the compass of one day." In the second section Hakewill touches on old errors "in philosophy." He denounces as an error the notion that the right hand is naturally more useful than the left, and urges that we should be trained to use both indifferently. Here he is in agreement with the Japanese of to-day and with certain American educational authorities; and there can be no doubt that he is right. In commendation of the left hand he writes, with a touch of delicate fancy, "if either hand should in nature be preferred before the other, methinks in reason it should be that which is nearest the heart, the fountain of life and activity." The third section is on errors in "History Ecclesiastical"; the fourth in "History Civil"; the fifth in "History Natural." He shows himself very skeptical on the subject of the strange tales of credulous old naturalists. The long-lived phœnix he rejects; he will not allow that bears are licked into shape, that swans sing before they die, that salamanders live in the fire, or that hares are in one year male, in another female. Most contemptuously he dismisses the old notion that the sight of a wolf will strike a man dumb; nor will he be persuaded by Pliny that men are sometimes turned into wolves.

The second chapter (in five sections) sets out the reasons that induce the author to write and publish his treatise. These were his desire to discover and unfold the truth; to vindicate the Creator's honor; to show that the opposite opinion—the view that nature and man are decaying—would "quail the hopes and blunt the edge of virtuous endeavors," would make men careless as to their present fortunes and the welfare of posterity; and to point out how weak is the ground on which this opposite opinion has been based. Poets with their fables of the four ages of the world impose on us; and then we have to listen to morose old men complaining of the hardness of the present times and extolling the past, the truth being that the change is in the old men themselves, not in the world. There is such a thing as an excessive admiration for antiquity—"to prefer the wrinkles of antiquity before the rarest beauty of present times."

The plan that he proposed was to treat of the subject first in general and then come to particulars. He begins by advancing six general arguments to show that the world is not decaying. One is that if a process of deterioration had been going on from age to age, the world would wear a changed aspect to-day; the warmth of the sun would have been impaired, cedars would have shrunk to the size of shrubs, horses would be no bigger than dogs, eagles than pigeons, pigeons than sparrows, and the whole race of men must have become pygmies. Having set out the general arguments against the pretended decay, he proceeds to state—and rebut—the general arguments for it.

In Book II, which treats of the "Pretended Decay of the Heavens and Elements and Elementary Bodies," Hakewill speaks wisely on the subject of astrology. He had read much and thought much, and—though he was what would be called an advanced thinker for his age—he did not at all share our modern lazy incredulity as regards the stars and their influence. (It may be parenthetically remarked that one of the master minds of the nineteenth century, the great Balzac, had a very poor opinion of people who deride astrology.) The early Church, of course, had set its face against the astrologers; and quite rightly, for Hakewill warns us very solemnly and very emphatically that the plain man had better leave astrology alone. He fetches his argument not from the Christian Fathers but from a pagan philosopher, Favorinus (quoted by Aulus Gellius) who weighs the prognostications of star-gazers thus:

> Either they pretend bad or good luck; if good, and they deceive, thou wilt become miserable by a vaine expectation; if bad and they lye, thou wilt be miserable by a vaine feare; if they tell thee true, but unfortunate events, thou wilt bee miserable in minde before thou art by destinie; if they promise fortunate successe, which shall indeed come to passe, these two inconveniences will follow thereupon, both expectation by hope will hold thee in suspence, and hope will deflowre and devoure the fruit of thy content.

In the matter of plagues, famines, and earthquakes Hakewill maintains that we are less severely afflicted than in early times. In England leprosy had been stamped out before King James's days: the lazar houses, once crowded, stood empty or in ruins. As regards the complaints commonly heard that the earth is less fruitful than in former ages Hakewill quotes Columella, who wrote his books of Husbandry in the time of the Emperor Claudius. Farmers were then grumbling bitterly, but Columella denounced them as impious and told them it was their own bad farming that was to blame; and Pliny the elder was of Columella's opinion. Hakewill was confident that the farmers of his own time were better off than they had ever been. There might be times of scarcity, but the horrible famines recorded by the English chroniclers were happily things of the past. If the earth had not lost its fruitfulness, neither had there been any deterioration in the beasts of the field, or in birds, or in fish, or in minerals.

In Book III Hakewill considers Mankind in regard to age and duration, strength and stature, arts and wits. He concedes that the antediluvians and early patriarchs were granted prodigiously long lives, and rejects the view that the years of Methuselah and the rest were spaces of thirty-six days—pointing out that such a system of reckoning would make Canaan and Enoch fathers at six and a half or seven years, and the patriarch Abraham seventeen and a half at his death. On the Giants of Genesis he has much to say, and he estimates Ogg's height at twelve feet, though others stretch him out to twenty-four. After a display of much varied learning Hakewill reaches the conclusion that in the course of the past two or three thousand years there has been no material change in regard to stature. "Our late famous Queen Elizabeth" stood five feet nine, just two inches taller than Augustus Cæsar.

His survey of ancient and modern poetry is far from satisfactory. He commends Chaucer and Spenser (though it is doubtful whether he had more than a bowing acquaintance with either), but he has not a word to say about Shakespeare. Evidently he had little taste for poetry save of the didactic order, but he had been a deep student of divinity, and had read the Fathers with closest care: "I confess I reverence their very names; yet most certaine it is that they all had their slips and blemishes in matters of doctrine." Discussing architecture, he is enthusiastic about the beauty of English country-houses; of the colleges of the universities, and of the town-houses of the great merchants, particularly in London. On the subject of navigation he is loud in praise of Elizabethan seamen, particularly the "noble-spirited Drake"; and he wishes that some learned pen would translate into Latin, for the benefit of foreign nations, Hakluyt's "Voyages" and Purchas's "Pilgrimes." Towards the end of Book III he has an eloquent passage on the Mariner's Compass, and an account of some obscure anticipations of a sort of wireless telegraphy.

In Book IV, which deals with the "Pretended Decay in Matter of Manners," Hakewill ransacks the Fathers to depict in glowing colors the depravities of the ancient world; and, needless to say, he is steeped in Tacitus, Suetonius, Dion Cassius, Martial. In describing the luxury of imperial Rome he tells us of Domitian's palace; of Nero's golden house, with its three galleries, each a mile long, and of those stately cedarn barges (with their sails of many colors, and their sterns inlaid with pearls and precious stones) in which Caligula sailed up and down the coast of Campania.

The latter part of the Fourth (and last) Book is taken up with disquisitions on the end of the world, the joys of heaven, and the torments of hell; but into these mysteries we cannot, in the limits of the present paper, follow the author.

Correspondence

COMMUNICATIONS ON EDUCATIONAL TOPICS.

THE SITUATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF UTAH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the fact that seventeen members of the faculty of the University of Utah have resigned their positions on the ground that it seemed to them "impossible to retain their self-respect and remain in the University," the Council of the American Association of University Professors has authorized the appointment of a committee of inquiry to report upon the case. At the request of the president, the secretary of the Association recently spent four days in Salt Lake City investigating the situation in the University and collecting evidence to be laid before the committee. The special purposes and scope of the investigation are indicated in the following extract from the letter addressed by the secretary of the Association to the president of the University:

> The situation that has developed at the University of Utah has aroused much concern throughout the country among persons interested in the work of the American universities, and especially among members of the university teaching profession. It has, however, been difficult for those at a distance to be sure that they had correctly gathered

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the essential facts of the case from the incomplete and more or less conflicting *ex-parte* statements which have appeared in newspapers and periodicals. It has therefore seemed advisable to the president of the American Association of University Professors to send a representative of that organization to secure as full and impartial a statement as may be of the relevant facts. . . .

It is perhaps advisable to explain the nature of the interest which the Association of University Professors takes in the matter. It is coming to be a well-recognized principle that the general body of university teachers is entitled to know, with regard to any institution, the conditions of the tenure of the professorial office therein, the methods of university government, and the policy and practice of the institution with respect to freedom of inquiry and of teaching. In the absence of information upon these points, it is impossible for members of the profession to judge whether or not the institution is one in which positions may properly be accepted or retained, by university teachers having a respect for the dignity of their calling, a sense of its social obligations, and a regard for the ideals of a university. It is, therefore, important to the profession that when criticisms or charges are made by responsible persons against any institution, with respect to its conduct or policy in the matters to which I have referred, the facts should be carefully ascertained in a judicial spirit by some committee wholly detached from any local or personal controversies, and in some degree representative of the profession at large. It is in this spirit and for these purposes that information is sought in the present instance.

The report of the committee of inquiry will be prepared and published at as early a date as is practicable. It is the purpose of the committee to present all the pertinent facts so fully in its report that university teachers may judge for themselves as to the administrative methods, and the conditions of professorial service, in the University. We make this statement in order that any one who is considering either the acceptance of a position in the University or the recommending of others for such a position may look forward to a full knowledge of the situation in the near future, and may postpone immediate action in case he deems such knowledge advisable before reaching a final decision.

(Signed) JOHN DEWEY,
President of the American Association of University Professors.

A. O. LOVEJOY,
Secretary of the American Association of University Professors.

EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN,
Chairman of the Committee of Inquiry.

April 30.

THE MELTING-POT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issues of February 18 and 25 was published an able and thoughtful contribution to American sociology by Horace M. Kallen, entitled "Democracy Versus the Melting Pot." It is written with conviction, and merits the attention of intelligent American citizens. On the whole subject two observations seem called for.

First, in regard to his supposition that his ideal may be realized if the "dominant classes want such a society." Forces which no dominant classes can check are working the other way. He cites the example of England. The fusion of the Saxons, Danes, and Normans in the English stock is the direct antithesis of his ideal; but it is the direct result of that historic process which has made France, Germany, Holland, and Italy, and will make the future America. It will be after this type, and not after that of Austria and Switzerland, that will be shaped the nation between the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans.

Secondly, the author states as a decisive fact that the immigrants can change almost everything else, but cannot change their grandfathers. But this is precisely what the future generations of Americans are now doing. After the increase in material well-being and the opportunity in the public schools, the outstanding fact, and the one frequently overlooked, in the condition and prospects of our immigrant population, is the fact of mixed marriages. These have ever been a prominent factor in our national life, and in no small degree account for the submersion of the New England element which is seen and foreseen in Mr. Kallen's article. Never have they been so frequent among the middle and higher classes as now. There is an increasing tide of such marriages between Protestants and Roman Catholics. The marriage of Protestant and Hebrew is also fairly frequent, as any American city can testify. Racial lines among the whites are far more easily crossed than religious ones.

In spite of the facts and considerations marshalled in Professor Kallen's article, the historic and social process of advancing civilization points to a fusion, a blending of characteristics, not a confederation of ethnic units or communities upon American soil.

GEORGE H. DRYER.

Rochester, N. Y., March 8.

THE LOEB CLASSICAL LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Page, the editor of the Loeb Classical Library, is sending you a note in reply to certain strictures made by your reviewer in the *Nation* of March 25 on the editorship of this enterprise. May I reply to three of his suggestions—two critical, one crude—concerning myself and my functions as publisher of the Library? I gather that he has on a previous occasion found fault with the technical production of the series, and his recent spleen seems to have arisen out of the fact that the advice he was kind enough to give to the promoter, editors, council members, and publishers of the Loeb Classical Library has been disregarded. I wish we could see our way now to adopt his suggestions, but I fear that is not practicable. He finds fault (1) with the paper on which certain of the volumes of the series are printed; (2) with the alignment of the Greek texts and the English translations; (3) he advises me in future to devote my attention to the publication of "penny dreadfuls."

To take the three points in their order:

(1.) The paper of all the volumes of the Loeb Classical Library is made of the same material: it is made thicker in substance for volumes containing a small number of pages, and thinner for volumes containing a very large number of pages. This difference in the substance of the paper was adopted so as to give to the Library a fairly uniform appearance, *i. e.*, to avoid the inclusion of volumes very much thicker than others, and uniformity is, I think, popular in England, where the Library has its largest sale. He complains that the paper of thinner substance is not sufficiently opaque. There would be two ways of meeting his objection: (a) by using Oxford India paper for the long volumes, and (b) by dividing the works of authors into a larger number of volumes than at present. In both cases the cost would be increased. If the former course were adopted the volumes could not be sold at the present price, and if the latter, the price for an author's works would be increased by the price of the additional number of volumes necessary to house them. With regard to the price, we have had to consider the biggest existing market for classical literature.

(2.) Your reviewer does not like the mode adopted for alignment, which aims at presenting as attractive a page as possible and yet preserves close correspondence between the Greek text on one side and the English translation on the other. I admit that it is not always ideal, but I do not think your reviewer realizes for a moment the difficulty there is to obtain perfect alignment of a Greek text and a translation into modern English, especially when notes have to be added either on one side or the other. In some few cases, where we seem to have fallen short of your reader's ideal, it will be possible to make improvements in future reprints, improvements which have suggested themselves only on seeing the sheets actually printed off. In the majority it would be easy to show that our compromise has been the best way out of the difficulty. I cannot for a moment think of trespassing on your space to explain in detail the many technical difficulties that have had to be considered on every page. I can only wish that the editors had been able to avail themselves of some contribution by your reviewer. He would then have had an opportunity of realizing the difficulties that the contributors, editors, and printers have to contend with to obtain in so small a page both correct alignment and a fairly attractive appearance.

(3.) I fear I must decline to adopt your reviewer's suggestion that I should turn from the issuing of serious and scientific books to the publication of "penny dreadfuls." My past experience would, I fear, unfit me for a venture so alien and distasteful. If he had any knowledge of the British book market he would know that for twenty-five years I have published, every year, a list of books second to none on either side of the Atlantic. WM. HEINEMANN.

London, April 16.

DR. PAGE AND THE LOEB LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of March 25 you published a notice of several volumes of the Loeb Library, which was not so much a review of them as a general attack on the editing and publishing of the series. I hope, therefore, that in a matter of such large concern to all who love good letters you will allow me to make at least some reply.

You blame the editors for not adopting Dryden's version of Plutarch's "Lives" instead of procuring a new one by Professor Perrin, and justly refer to the high merits of the older rendering. But, sir, as it happens, there is no greater admirer and no more eager student of old English translations of the classics than my colleague, Dr. Rouse. From the first he pleaded almost passionately for their free use, and we had, in fact, resolved to employ many of them. The difficulties to be

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faced were, no doubt, considerable, for between brilliancy and accuracy there is often a great gap, and, just as the translators of the Old Testament never wrote nobler English than when they were most doubtful as to the meaning of the Hebrew, so the felicity of a phrase often rendered these old translators careless as to the strict meaning of the original. Read by themselves, their work often seems beyond praise; but when set opposite to the text its defects too frequently almost leap into the light, and, having gone through the proof-sheets of St. Augustine's "Confessions," as rendered by W. Watts, and Pliny's "Letters," by W. Melmoth, I am aware that the task of necessary revision is one which needs much industry and considerable literary tact. None the less, it seemed to me that, in a series the chief purpose of which was to revive the study of the humanities, both here and in America, these noble versions—the equal heritage of the English-speaking race on either side of the Atlantic—should justly, or indeed necessarily, hold a conspicuous place. They appealed strongly to my literary judgment; they appealed, perhaps, still more strongly to my imagination, for they seemed, sir, to be a link between our scholars and yours—a happy reminder that, as we have one aim, so we also belong to one household. But, unfortunately, as I think, other views were held in America. It was represented to us by our advisers that accuracy was so essential and that it was so necessary to take full advantage of modern criticism, that the old versions ought wholly to be put aside, and to this opinion, with some few exceptions, we in England have deferred. We may have been wrong in doing so, but when it was definitely stated to us that we should otherwise seriously injure the series in America, our decision seemed forced upon us. And as now it is from America that the attack comes, I can only say that, if your critic can convince his fellow-countrymen, no one will be more delighted than the English editors. Still greater would be our joy if he would give us a little help, for, although the matter is not strictly in my province, I am told that, whereas in England our sales are most encouraging, in America, to our great disappointment, they are exactly the reverse.

But, sir, your attack is chiefly directed not to questions of literary interest, but to the more prosaic business of "manufacture," and in referring to this I cannot but express my regret that you speak of Mr. Heinemann, our publisher, in language which seems only designed to create prejudice. He has been twice "President of the Publishers' Association"; he has given the editors every possible help; no one has a more skilled knowledge of his business or a more living interest in literature, and to suggest that he is best fitted to issue "penny dreadfuls" seems to transgress the limits alike of criticism and truth. On the other hand, the questions you raise are of real importance, and I should be glad briefly to deal with them.

The first has to do with that very bothersome thing called "justification." The word, until I read your article, was new to me, except in theology, where many pitfalls have been set round it by the evil one, but now I find that "the printer's devil" is no less active in making mischief in connection with it. But perhaps my critic hardly realizes what a difficult business this keeping text and translation exactly in line is. They rarely occupy equal space, but first one and then the other expands or contracts in bulk, while a critical note on one page, or a bit of explanation on the other, perpetually upsets the balance, and in addition the task is one in which compositors are almost without experience, the "make-up" of the volumes being quite exceptional. Indeed, until I entered on my task—which I thought would be wholly a literary one—I had no conception of the technical difficulties which an editor would have to face, and was no doubt, as you suggest, "incompetent"; but on the whole I think that this particular perplexity has been got over with reasonable success, and that few ordinary readers would find the balance between the original and the rendering strikingly defective. And after all, sir, the Library ought not to be severely criticised on these trivial grounds. Its real "justification" is to be found in its contents, and if these are good a microscopic difference of alignment will hardly much disturb a liberal mind. Mr. Frederic Harrison has publicly stated that he packs these volumes in his portmanteau when he travels, and I was recently told by the greatest of English statesmen how he had taken one of them to bed with him and there read it with delight—*et justificata est Sapientia a filiis suis!*

But, perhaps, your chief onslaught is on the quality of the paper which, in some few volumes that run 600 pp. or more, is thin and consequently too transparent. The disfiguration I allow, but there is also a dilemma, and your critic does not show the way out of it. For take a concrete case. We are desirous to publish "Theophrastus on Plants," a work of much interest, and one which ought to be published, but can hardly, I imagine, have a large sale, and, although financial considerations do not come within my purview as editor, I am bound to have some regard to them, and I am faced with this situation: The work demands about 700 pages; issued in one volume, *on India paper,* the cost of manufacture would, I believe, be prohibitive; issued in two volumes the cost to the purchaser would be doubled and become excessive. And a like difficulty constantly recurs. The Plutarch volume, for instance, which you criticise is undoubtedly too long. But Plutarch's "Lives" go in pairs, and the choice was between 400 pp. or 600 pp., between thin, and partly unsatisfactory, paper, and increasing the number of volumes by 50 per cent., and the editors have chosen what, I think, was the less disadvantageous course.

These, however, and like difficulties will, I hold, in time be solved. Partial failure must often accompany the beginning of great enterprises. And this is in truth a great enterprise. My own connection with it must be brief; my services to it can, at best, be only inadequate and poor; but the measure of its importance passes far beyond such narrow limits. For, as one who has spent his life in education, I know that the study of "the humanities" must, if we are wise, ever retain in it a worthy and sufficient place. In poetry and history, in morals, in law, and the art of government, in science and in philosophy, in almost every department of human thought, the great classical writers are by unbroken lineage our spiritual forefathers. The life that to-day quickens the whole western world derives from them in immediate succession. Their thoughts are part and parcel of our own being, and, if we would understand ourselves, we must know something of them also. But the modern world is too "anxious and troubled about many things" to have time for such considerations. The material discoveries of science at once amaze and overwhelm it, while what is called "progress" has produced such a fretfulness of unrest, such a ceaseless struggle for material gains, that in seeking the means to live the meaning of life has been forgotten. The securing of daily food or the grasping at a superfluity of "what men call treasure, but the gods call dross," makes such insistent claims that the true self is often left starving and neglected. "Man," it is written, "shall not live by bread alone," yet to-day it is "bread-studies" that are everywhere seizing a larger domain, and sometimes almost a tyranny, in the world of education. The study of the classics, because it only ennobles and elevates the mind, but makes no pretence to be either practical or "paying," is being gradually ousted from our schools and universities. Certainly it is so in England; I fear it is so in America; and yet, to my fancy, even that awful conflict which is now devastating Europe is less dangerous and less deadly than the slow and silent, but sure and ceaseless, process of corruption which saps the very foundation of national greatness by teaching our youth to set wealth before well-being, and the gifts of Mammon before the imperishable riches of the mind. That is indeed the road to ruin; that is "for the sake of life to sacrifice life's true cause," and it is just because Mr. Loeb's effort seems to me, whether it succeed or fail, at least a noble effort, an endeavor to divest men's minds from things of trivial and transitory concern to things of real and enduring interest, that I would deprecate, sir, too harsh criticism, and rather entreat from all men of true purpose and wise judgment that help and encouragement which are assuredly its due.

May I add that, though you call me "the general editor," any precedence which I enjoy is due only to the poor privilege of age, and also that I look forward to the Library doing its work from now onward with more effect, owing to a distinguished American scholar—Prof. E. Capps, of Princeton—having most happily consented to become an editor.

THOMAS ETHELBERT PAGE.

Godalming, England, April 20.

VOCATIONISM AND DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Enthusiasts for vocational training are fond of pointing out that the vocational idea is traditionally implied in the American system of democratic education. The purpose of the common schools, they tell us, has always been to prepare children for earning a living. And they sometimes venture the extreme argument, that the older American college was vocational, because its chief function was to educate young men for the ministry. The fact that the ministry of older days was more exclusively than at present the vocation of cultivated men, and the bearing of this upon the motive of education, appear to pass unobserved. Yet this alone may be sufficient to raise the question whether any of our education may be called exclusively vocational, whether any of it is free from the motive of culture.

If education is to prepare the child for earning a living, it must doubtless teach him to produce something. This technical side of education may perhaps stand for a motive purely vocational. But if he is to earn his living in civilized society, under conditions demanding an exchange of products, he must also be prepared to deal with other

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men. And here the considerations are much more complex. Strictly speaking, it is much of a question whether, outside of the distinctively technical vocations, any education whatever is necessary for making a living. In the past, at least, we can boast of not a few unlettered millionaires. Yet, if we step into any first-class shop, we find that the clerk or salesman is usually a man of good manners, neatly and carefully dressed, and in command of fairly good English. We know also that these are the conditions of his employment. Why should such requirements be necessary? Looking at the bare necessities of the case, it seems that any yokel in blue overalls might do the job just as well, if only he were endowed with fair natural intelligence.

Of course, the reason is not far to seek; and it shows at once that the need of education is not strictly a vocational necessity, but, in the last analysis, a social necessity. To take part in the activities of civilized society one must have at least a tincture of humane culture. And this motive is more or less in evidence on all sides. The prejudice against college men in business is becoming rapidly a thing of the past, even in the West. Every year we find corporations and business houses applying to our colleges for the best among those who are about to graduate. Strange to say, it is usually a matter of indifference to them whether the candidate has specialized in chemistry, in economics, or in Greek. They themselves will attend to his business training and test his final merits; all that they require, to begin with, is good material as determined by academic standards. Doubtless this may be regarded as a tribute to the value of a liberal education for all the purposes of life. But it stands also for another motive. The fact seems to be that, even in democratic America, the man who occupies a position of higher responsibility is apt to be, at least in comparison with his subordinates, a man of education and a gentleman; and this fact creates the condition that those who aspire to the higher posts must be able to associate with educated men upon equal terms.

This motive is not without appreciation among school-boys themselves. In his report upon the schools of New York city, Professor Hanus has stated frankly that the commercial high school was regarded by the pupils as more or less *déclassé*, and that it was avoided by the best pupils, even among those who were planning a business career; and, if we remember correctly, he admits that the instruction was upon a lower intellectual level, though he will not admit that this is necessary. In the colleges, however, there is a similar feeling towards the department of education, and there are few of the brighter minds among those who are intending to teach who would not prefer to enter their profession along some other path. The courses in journalism and commerce are more or less under the same ban. Whether it is because the vocational motive puts a damper upon the spirit of free inquiry, we cannot say; but it seems to be a fact that the vocational purpose gives to every subject a stamp of intellectual mediocrity which repels all who take their education seriously. The schools of law and of medicine are seeking to guard against this imputation by requiring the degree in arts for entrance.

This may lead us to suspect that the motive of culture is far more deeply implicated in the popular demand for education than vocationists are able to see. And where culture is demanded by social standards, it is likely also, in most cases, to stand for a personal ideal. After all, it is not against nature for a boy who is determined to make much of himself to desire also to be as much in himself as he can. And it is not impossible to interpret the democratic theory of education to mean that every one is entitled to the education of a gentleman. Vocationists have been known to say in confidence that, in the end, their only motive was to keep the children in school a while longer: vocationalism, they explain, is simply a theory of education adjusted to the understanding of the plain people. If this is the game, it might be worth while to try the experiment of playing it openly. In the matter of education, the materialism of the plain people may not be so gross as the materialism of the vocationalist. X.

New York, March 30.

Literature

FINANCE IN WAR.

War and Lombard Street. By Hartley Withers. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25 net.

Mr. Withers's book is an unusually clear and compact account, from the London point of view, of the extraordinary financial situation which arose instantaneously, and throughout the world, when war became imminent last July. People grow used to new and unusual conditions in finance, as elsewhere. The most portentous and amazing phenomena, if long continued, become familiar, and it is not so easy now, after eight months of "war conditions" on the markets, to realize just what has happened. It may safely be said, however, that if any one had predicted, no longer ago than last June, the proclaiming of a moratorium on debts in England; the closing of all the world's stock exchanges for five months; the issue, under the auspices of the British Government, of paper currency; the rise of sterling exchange at New York to $6 in August and its fall to $4.78⅛ in March—whereas the highest and lowest rates known to previous history were $4.90 and $4.81, respectively—he would have been regarded as a dreamer. Yet all these things have happened, and are now the commonplace topics of the markets.

Into Mr. Withers's detailed narrative and explanations of the phenomena of last August and the ensuing months, it is not possible for us to go. The complex and highly technical forces at work are described with great clearness, acquired by the author's long experience as financial editor of the London *Times*—an experience recognized in his recent appointment as official adviser, on money-market relations, to the British Treasury. But the book must be read as a whole to understand the real causes underlying each of the notable movements of the period. It is the purpose of this review to take up a few of the larger economic principles which were involved in that epoch-making financial crisis, and with which Mr. Withers has to deal.

Among most people unacquainted with the details of present-day finance, and among a good many people familiar with the field, four questions are repeatedly asked and not very clearly answered, and these questions Mr. Withers discusses. Did the world's great money markets act, on outbreak of the war, or did they not, in line with prediction and expectation of experienced financiers? Why did exchange on London move against New York with such unprecedented violence in August, only to move with equal violence in New York's favor in the ensuing February? Were London's "emergency measures" wise or not—the moratorium, for instance, the closing of the Stock Exchange, the special currency issues, the Bank of England's guarantee of bills of exchange made unnegotiable because drawn on an enemy market? Finally, what is the real significance of London's own admission that New York, for the present, has taken London's place as the "money centre" of the world?

Mr. Withers says frankly that the actual course of events has been different from what the best financial judgment had expected. His own prediction, he admits, had been that such a war would cause no serious trouble to the English credit system, because internal trouble could be met by the familiar recourse of suspending the Bank of England Act and thereby expanding the currency without "gold cover," while external trouble could be dealt with by calling on the rest of the world to pay up what it owed to England. In the event, the Government offered to grant suspension of the Bank Act, but the Bank never resorted to it. A demand for repayment of indebtedness by the outside world was met by a moratorium in those outside markets also, and by break-down of the machinery of international exchange. One is reminded of the economist Newmarch's prediction, long ago, that in a "general war" the British Government would seize the gold in the Bank of England. Nothing of the sort happened at London, though something very much like it happened at Berlin.

As to why New York exchange on London, like sterling at all other outlying markets, rose to such wholly unparalleled heights during August (our own rate got to $6.50, when $4.89 in the pound sterling is the normal maximum), that is readily answered:

> England's position as a creditor country is so overwhelmingly strong that, when she called on other nations to pay what was due, the other nations had a relatively trivial amount of outstanding claims on England to set against what they owed her; and, being unable to ship goods or gold with the usual facility, or to sell England securities, they simply could not pay.

This being so, bills of exchange, to remit from New York to London during August, in payment of an American debt maturing at London, were virtually unobtainable, and the extremely high rates measured the excess of demand over supply. Mr. Withers's

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book was written last December, just before the dramatic turn of the whole economic situation in favor of this country. The reason why exchange rates shortly thereafter declined with such violence was that our market began, on a scale unprecedented in history, to pay off its foreign debt through excess of merchandise exports over imports. This effort was facilitated, first by our unprecedentedly large wheat crop, at a time when Europe's crop of 1914 was short and its war requirements urgent, next by the enormous purchase of munitions of war by belligerent Europe in this country, but also—this is the belief of many practical bankers—by remittance of capital from foreign countries, in a very large aggregate total, to New York banking institutions for safekeeping.

Mr. Withers's opinion as to the wisdom of London's measures of emergency is expressed with some reserve. The moratorium on obligations of the English banks he evidently regards as a mistake. Open banking facilities, under any and all circumstances, "was a flag," he thinks, "that it was worth while to keep flying till the last possible moment." Recourse to an extended bank holiday, while the requisite new currency was being provided, "might have kept it flying throughout the war."

The issue of emergency currency, under Government auspices, he in general approves as a necessity of the crisis; though warning his readers that "the legacy . . . of Government paper money . . . is a new departure that will have to be watched over very carefully"—proposals having already been made that "Government should make use of it for lending inconvertible paper money to local bodies, without interest, to be used in works devised to meet unemployment owing to the war." Here we have the old problem of the fiat-money delusion, so certain to arise in the aftermath of such experiments. It is highly reassuring to know, as all of us know now, that so far from looking kindly on the doctrine of inconvertibility, the British Government, by the close of March, had transferred $137,500,000 gold from the Bank of England's vaults to a special reserve against outstanding "currency notes."

In August, no gold reserve at all stood behind them; to-day, they are "covered" 72 per cent. in gold. Mr. Withers's main criticism on the emergency currency is that no machinery for its issue was in existence when the war began, and the prodigious hoarding of money with it. This was in spite of warnings from the banking community long before the war, that a store of emergency currency, provisionally authorized by law, ought to be kept always in store against an actual war crisis. It was not the least remarkable of the economic incidents of last August that the United States was the only country in the world which was exactly thus equipped. Our own "Aldrich-Vreeland Emergency-Currency Act" of 1908, passed when the country was under immediate and painful recollections of the "currency famine" of the October panic of 1907, had never resulted in the output of a dollar's worth of the special currency until August, 1914. Between then and October 30, when retirement began, the total issue was $228,000,000. The maximum amount of the British "currency notes," thus far at any one time outstanding, was $192,300,000.

Mr. Withers clearly approves, as an emergency measure, the novel and far-reaching project of re-discounting by the Bank of England, with the British Government's guarantee, of the Continental loans of the international bankers, non-collectible because of the war. This privilege was later extended to the "bill brokers" holding paper of the sort, of which they were unable to dispose. The Bank took over these loans for the period of the war, charging 2 per cent. over the official bank rate; which would make their interest charge 7 per cent. per annum. It is this enormous extension of credit by the Bank which has brought its loan account, with other parties than the Government, $474,000,000 above what it was a year ago.

If any of these borrowers fails to settle after the war, the Exchequer must make good the loss. Mr. Withers does not believe, however, that the taxpayer will be called upon to any appreciable extent. He and the Bank are alike protected by the exercise of discrimination allowed to the Bank in accepting such paper for rediscount, and by the great strength of the banks and banking houses whose loans were thus guaranteed. In any case, the measure was indispensable, if formidable bankruptcies were to be averted. But Mr. Withers does not attempt to forecast the economic situation to be created when the war is over and the Bank calls for payment on the bills. This is a part of that very grave problem of financial readjustment which will follow peace. As for the closing of the Stock Exchange—an incident unknown, even in the Napoleonic wars—that is conceded as unavoidable. It was the avalanche of sales from the Continent of Europe, in the "war panic" week, which threatened such complete annihilation of quoted values as to bring about, if not stopped by arbitrary closing of the market, the general insolvency of the stock broker community, whose loans at the London banks, based on the market valuation of the securities pledged as collateral, amounted to fully $90,000,000.

In one phase of the economic history of the war, and that by no means the least important, Mr. Withers's discussion illustrates strikingly both the rapidity with which events followed one another in this economic chapter and the mistakes of prophecy which were made by the most experienced critics. London's predicament, its moratorium on debts, the difficulties of its banking situation, the closing of its Stock Exchange, created "the chance of a century for New York." It was the opportunity to grasp at the coveted position of the central money market of the world. This chance of a century, Mr. Withers tells us, New York could not take. "When London called in its credit from other countries," the market which instantly granted on its own account the credit thus recalled "would have stepped straight on to London's financial throne, and set London a very difficult task to regain it after the war was over." But the United States "feared to use its gold," and therefore had to appeal to London itself for "special arrangements to tide over the difficulty which London's claims on her had produced." Therefore, instead of the war crisis "having given any evidence of weakness on the part of London, or of any likelihood that she will lose her supremacy as the world's banker, the commanding strength of her position has been made abundantly manifest."

Mr. Withers drew these conclusions in December. Had he written six weeks later, he would have written differently. That brief interval had seen the export trade of the United States rising to heights which produced a wholly unprecedented balance; the foreign exchanges moving in favor of New York in an equally unprecedented way; our market subscribing to Government and company loans of Canada, South America, and the Continent of Europe, and, at length, the British Government itself forbidding further direct investment of English capital in foreign securities, and the London banking community publicly admitting that, for the period of war at any rate, the place of the world's banking centre had been shifted to New York. This is not the least of the incidents of the period which lends interest to the question, Just what will be the financial history of the aftermath of war?

LILLI LEHMANN AND WAGNER.

My Path Through Life. By Lilli Lehmann. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.

At the age of sixty-seven Lilli Lehmann still enchants German audiences in the concert halls, and sometimes even in an opera house; a fact which provides an amusing commentary on the oft-repeated assertion that the singing of Wagner's music ruins the voice; for Lehmann was for thirty years the greatest and busiest of Wagnerian singers. She inherited her fine voice, as well as its longevity, from her mother, Marie Loew, whose voice preserved its youthful tonal beauty, its fulness, and its brilliancy of execution till her seventy-seventh year; "proof," as Frau Lehmann remarks, "that, with proper treatment, a vocal organ will defy any age." In her book, "Meine Gesangskunst," which has appeared in an English version by Richard Aldrich, under the title "How to Sing," she has told the world what she did to preserve her voice. "My Path through Life" is an English version, by Alice Benedict Seligman, of her "Mein Weg," perhaps the most absorbingly interesting of all musical autobiographies, and at the same time an invaluable contribution to the catalogue of Wagneriana.

Lilli Lehmann's mother was an intimate friend of Richard Wagner, who used to refer to her as his "first flame." She sang difficult colorature parts, like the Queen of Night, besides all the important dramatic rôles. In Rossini's "Otello" she personally accompanied her singing on a harp. It was

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in this same opera that she once came to the rescue of Wagner, who was absent-minded and allowed the orchestra to get ahead of him. Her admonition to him: "Welter, weiter!" was, however, understood by the audience as "Feuer! Feuer!" and a panic was narrowly averted. One of Wagner's letters to Marie Loew is printed on pages 101-102; it should be read by Arturo Toscanini and others who harbor the notion that in Wagner's operas the orchestra and its conductor are more important than the singers, and that a good ensemble will make up for the absence of stars. Wagner himself hunted for stars all over Germany when he got ready for his Bayreuth festivals; and it was he who discovered Lilli Lehmann, who afterwards outshone them all. In 1863 he wanted to adopt her as his daughter.

No other writer has pictured the Bayreuth festivals so vividly as has Lilli Lehmann in these memoirs. Of special interest and importance are her revelations of Wagner's personality during these trying times. The caricature of his character presented by Ernest Newman in his "Wagner as Man and Artist" is seen in its right light when contrasted with Lehmann's observations. He was kindness and considerateness itself in his dealings with all the artists; of his alleged ingratitude she could find no instance. Her chief reward for her devotion to him—for sharing much of the hardest work with him besides singing the part of the first Rhine Maiden—was the tears of joy which rolled down his cheeks when she and her sister Marie and Minna Lammert sang the exquisite trios for him and his wife, Cosima, who sobbed aloud. This was in 1876. In 1882, during and before the "Parsifal" festival, Lilli was again one of Wagner's busiest and most devoted assistants, taking charge, particularly, of the chorus of flower maidens. What he said and wrote to her on this subject belongs among the most important traditions for conductors to heed, besides being most interesting to all lovers of his art.

After Wagner's death the reins were taken up by his widow, who showed the most amazing disregard for his intentions as carried out in 1876 and 1882. Frau Lehmann tells a number of stories about this indifference to the master's wishes which would seem unbelievable were they not corroborated by the testimony of other artists in other publications. When she heard "Rheingold" in 1896, she writes, "a boundless sorrow overcame me for all that had been dear to me in 1876." Often she felt impelled to call out to the Rhine Maidens and tell them how she and her companions had done it under Wagner's directions; but no one asked her opinion or advice. An interesting circumstance connected with the original performances of "Rheingold" is that the machines holding the maidens were guided by three young musicians who subsequently became world-famed as Wagnerian conductors: Mottl, Fischer, and Seidl.

Of Seidl, Lilli Lehmann has a good deal to relate. In recounting her American experiences in 1885-86, she writes: "Anton Seidl, Richard Wagner's favorite pupil, was the conductor—the most talented and earnest of the Bayreuth Guild of 1876. He has always been to me the best of all Wagner conductors." It was, indeed, fortunate that Seidl and Lehmann both were brought to New York together to spread the gospel of Wagnerism. Nor were they alone; there were big casts in those days, that could be heard for half the money an opera seat now costs. "Tristan and Isolde," for example, during the season 1886-87, united, under Seidl's guidance, Lehmann, Niemann, Brandt, Fischer, Robinson, and Alvary! One need not be a pessimist to fear that such a group—which included four persons who had been schooled by Wagner himself—will never again be united in one cast.

It has long been known that Lilli Lehmann never received the prominence she deserved at the Berlin Royal Opera, and that her greatness was first revealed in New York; on this point she gives some details which will surprise all except those who knew how shabbily Wagner himself was always treated in Berlin. A prominent official was overheard saying: "We are glad to get rid of Lehmann; she is forty years old and would soon have burdened our pension list." This was at the beginning of her glorious career in America as the world's greatest dramatic soprano! One reason why she was glad to cross the ocean was that over here she could earn more by singing at thirty concerts than she could in three years as a member of the Royal Opera. All these things she relates in a simple, gossipy style. The book includes also a number of anecdotes about most of the prominent artists of the time; amusing incidents on tour here and abroad; hints for health, including an account of how she was cured of dyspepsia by vegetarianism; and a hundred other things, together with fifty illustrations. The translator has coped successfully with a difficult task.

REST AMONG THE PEDANTS.

Essays on Books. By William Lyon Phelps. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Professional writers who undertake the essay nowadays seem for the most part to be laboring under an uneasy compulsion. They must be amusing, first of all, and the pace of the entertainment during recent years has been rapidly "speeded up" by the British school of mountebanks. Brilliancy must at least be striven for, "punch" of some kind achieved, if it is only common-sense or the English tongue which bears the brunt of the punching. The old repose, the old urbanity, the quiet, ruminating, self-possessed and reasonably self-satisfied air of the elder essayists, even those of the despised Victorian period—where are they now? It is perhaps one of time's revenges that they, or traces of them, are now most often to be found among professional students and teachers of the humanities. Academic is, we may fancy, a term which will be less rather than more an epithet of reproach as this century goes on. If twentieth-century literature, having served its famous apprenticeship to Life (via journalism), presently finds itself seeking quietude and self-respect among the pedants, even the tired business man may be constrained to define pedantry anew.

These papers by Professor Phelps, of Yale, are not of earth-shaking importance—they do not even pretend to be. But they distinctly possess the qualities we are speaking of. Their author is not in a hurry; he is not making copy for copy's sake, or trying to tickle a public. Most of the papers here collected have, to be sure, already been addressed to a public as magazine articles, introductions, or addresses. But they are the natural utterance of such a dweller as Mr. Phelps is in such a world as the present. They recount his adventures with certain masters and masterpieces among whom natural tastes and occasions have thrown him. They are genuine in their kind, whether brief notes and reviews, as many of them are, or essays of some length and pretension. Lessing, Schiller, Schopenhauer, Paul Heyse, as well as Mark Twain, Whittier, Carlyle, Jane Austen, give occasion for a commentary marked by good sense and good taste. By far the longest essay in the volume—the essay on Richardson—is also in many respects the best. It is written from the point of view of a reader who not only admires the writer but respects the man. The world has inclined to remember the author of Grandison and to forget the author of Clarissa. The little tea-drinking bookseller, comfortably wrapped about with feminine adulation, has proved an irresistibly comic figure, an "easy mark," as the boys say, for the satiric bolt. Mr. Phelps does not deny the comic aspect, but sees much beside it or behind it; something solid and even venerable: "It was not merely because he understood them sympathetically that the women opened their hearts to the great novelist; it was largely because of his goodness, his purity, his discretion, and the absolute safety of even the closest and most confidential relations with the little man. . . . So resplendent a genius united with a moral character so lofty was a rather unusual combination in the social conditions of eighteenth-century life; and it drew the hearts of idolatrous women with irresistible appeal."

Mr. Phelps's analysis of the famous romances is, with all its compactness, perhaps the best that has been made within any compass.

Of more general interest is the briefer opening essay on "Realism and Reality in Fiction," in which the writer takes a step towards clearing the foggy outlines of those moss-gathering abstract terms, "realism" and "romance." A quoted sentence may give a fair notion of the argument:

"The form, the style, the setting, and the scenery of a work of art may determine whether it belongs to realism or romanticism; for realism and romanticism are af-

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fairs of time and space. Reality, however, by its very essence, is spiritual, and may be accompanied by a background that is contemporary, ancient, or purely mythical."

REMINISCENCES OF A VETERAN.

With Sabre and Scalpel. By John A. Wyeth. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Brothers. $3 net.

Dr. Wyeth's bent in childhood, as with innumerable lads of every generation, was towards the military life, and he had no time to outgrow it. The romance of "Marion the Swamp Fox" and the glamour from "Napoleon and his Marshals" prepared a facile route to the raider's saddle when, at the mature age of sixteen, his political judgment led him to embrace the armed cause of the seceding States. He was born on May 26, 1845. His father was a judge, and Alabama boys of that station were presumed to acquire an education. So, ready for college, he was matriculated in February, 1861, at La Grange Military Academy, an Alabama institution of the higher grade (selected because it was "Military"). His formal "schooling" ceased in the following December, and his education through books was suspended for six years after this ten months' essay. With studies interrupted, and precluded by his youth from immediately enlisting as he longed, the wiry but undeveloped boy, unassisted, cultivated a ten-acre field of corn in the battle-summer of 1862. This achievement was of more material advantage to the community, more stimulating as an example, and of vastly greater benefit to the worker himself, than would have been any attempt to expel by force of arms intruding Yankees. Nevertheless he sacrificed one agricultural day. Ardent and inexperienced, he gladly joined a hastily summoned posse of boys and old men mustering a score of shotguns and rifles, who, concealed along the bank, opened fire upon the improvised gunboat "Tennessee," slowly passing up the river. Protected by cotton-bales, she was armed with two six-pounders and carried sixty Ohio soldiers. Her armament and the range were miscalculated, so that the attack was a challenge, not an interference, and the valor of ignorance was quickly dissipated when swarms of conoidal bullets buzzed through the underbrush and shrapnel added its peculiar discouragement. One slight buckshot wound was the sole casualty on the vessel, which pursued its way without delay or acceleration; for happily neither military dignity nor nervousness required the countryside to be laid waste because unorganized residents attempted to repel invasion. Naturally, the assailants fled in terror from the uproar they had excited, but presently they were the heroes of the village for their part in this "quixotic performance," as Dr. Wyeth now recognizes it to have been.

The boy returned to his monotonous cornfield, but his heart was in the camp and the zymosis of war in his blood stirred him with the ferment of unrest. From a photograph of 1861, in the uniform of his Military Academy (but underwritten as a trooper of 1863), he might be one of the Babes in the Wood masquerading as a soldier. Were it not so momentous to him, it would be laughable to think of this child roaming the country as a warrior. Nevertheless, where a youth rides expertly and is a good shot, the obsolescence of shock-action adds to the efficiency, by increasing the mobility of the light dragoons which the horsed Confederates became. The constant wonder is that such brats, as one is tempted to call them, whose virility must just have been dawning, had either the courage or the endurance to risk their lives against the distressing hunger, cold, and fatigue, to say nothing of the traumatic dangers necessarily encountered.

Still too young for formal enlistment, in December, 1862, this lad, accompanying a convalescent officer, went "to see the army." A division of cavalry lay at Alexandria, forty miles east of Nashville, where, yielding to the ceaseless temptation, he joined as an "independent" a company of Scouts, the advance guard in Morgan's famous raid, then on the point of starting to break the Federal connections with the Ohio. The narrative nowhere suggests ever a qualm of conscience over the amateur manslaughter for which he thus engaged himself as a camp-follower, not as a combatant under pay, obligation, and discipline. He was too keenly engrossed in ridding his immediate section of unwelcome fellow-citizens even to commune with his own heart upon matters of ethics. This expedition, thirty-nine hundred mounted men strong, had artillery, but no other wheels accompanied it. It travelled "light" and subsisted on the country. These raiders, Dr. Wyeth says, and "practically all of our Western mounted troops, fell short of their efficiency in the absence of that strict discipline without which no men ever make the best of soldiers." Organic discipline, not individual courage, is the secret of power, but in extemporized armies this usually is learned too tardily. We cannot follow here their stormy blizzard-smitten trail over which with great speed they marched two hundred and seventy miles, fought ten engagements, penetrated to within eighteen miles of Louisville, destroyed immense quantities of public stores, demolished railways, and captured nearly two thousand prisoners.

In February "Little Johnny," as this beardless irregular was known among his fighting comrades, said good-by to the Scouts, and after an adventurous journey arrived at home. Final "consultation" with his parents led to his regular enlistment as a private in Company I, Fourth Alabama Cavalry, early in April, 1863, when not quite eighteen years of age. The next six months were crowded with military adventure, most conspicuous and hazardous among which was carrying through the Union lines dispatches to a co-operating Confederate force in their rear, about ten days before the battle of Chickamauga. In this, as in practically every one of many and diverse emergencies, Dr. Wyeth (that was to be) maintained his resourceful self-possession. The boy, for to the end of his service strangers looked upon him as a child, was father of a man not afraid to think for himself and to transmute thought into action.

We give so much space to this juvenile character, a mere atom in an awful war, partly because he was a type, an unusual specimen it is true, but still a representative, of the misdirected energies of Southern callants, and partly as revealing the essence of a really great man still among us, whose greatness has been constructive in a very different field. Captured after a brilliant exploit, he entered Camp Morton, a prisoner of war, in October, 1863, when enforced privation and inevitable distress began. That prison camp made a sorry tale for the authorities, and one of suffering for many of the captives without compensatory reward, as when victory crowns self-denial and exhaustion. Late in February, 1865, Wyeth, a stripling of less than twenty, and a chronic invalid, was included in a detachment selected for exchange because too feeble for the field. He reached Alabama in March and a few weeks later his sick furlough and the war terminated together. Two years spent in vigorous outdoor employment reestablished his health and supplied funds for the study of medicine in a well-known Kentucky school. In March, 1869, after two sessions' attendance on a duplicated course of didactic lectures, with no clinical instruction, and apparently without preliminary study, he received the degree of M.D., and the liability to its serious responsibilities. His incompetence for practice with justice to his patients or credit to himself burst upon him after treating two or three cases, and he at once withdrew from the defective exercise of what would have been in reality a half-learned trade. Shrinking from accountability for health, often for life itself, he stepped aside until, energetically acquiring means through various honorable undertakings, he could seriously prosecute further study at one of the great centres of medical science. So in March, 1873, he received the *ad eundem* degree from Bellevue Medical College, in New York. Now, well taught and confident, he rapidly rose through acute analysis of obscure conditions, brilliant operative work, prize-essays, and other papers of advanced science, to a deserved reputation, and became the founder of systematic post-graduate medical teaching in this country. The last is most valuable public service, but to the combined hospital and school that he established the application "Polyclinic" is weak. "The Hospital College," or "The Teaching Hospital," would be easily explicable and avoid any savor of pretence or verbal flourish. The name does not lessen its value, but it is a homonym of the Continental "Poliklinik," and because of that the spelling is liable to confusion. In explaining the derivation of the newer word, the proofreader has accepted πολυδ for πολύς, and κλινε takes the place of κλίνη.

Interesting as the true account of a live man not under the restraint of self-effacing

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modesty, as literature the autobiography is crude. Incidentally, there appears to have been no careful excision or polish of rough material collected with more enthusiasm than discretion. For instance, an important incident is repeated (pp. 330, 462); there is apparent confusion of the Assembly's Shorter Catechism with the Confession of Faith; and much is incorporated that is entirely irrelevant. The medical profession should be glad of John A. Wyeth's own account of his life, and the student of domestic history may welcome from a minor participant his recollection of the Civil War and some record of the conditions he unavailingly sought to maintain through the destruction of the Union.

Finance

THE CLASH WITH GERMANY, AND THE MARKETS.

In view of the hysterical pitch to which the past month's speculation on the Stock Exchange had risen—especially in shares of the so-called "war-order concerns"—it was plain, a week ago, that both Wall Street sentiment and Wall Street prices would be affected quickly by any sudden bad turn in the news. The violent rise in prices had in fact been built up on a prolonged run of favorable incidents. Such an unbroken series of cheerful developments had led the speculator, as it usually does, to believe that the character of the news would never change. As a mere mathematical proposition, no presumption could be more absurd; the longer a run upon the red, the greater the reasonable expectation that black must presently turn up. It did turn up in Sunday's news of the sinking of an American oil-ship by a German submarine, with loss of life to American citizens and with a consequent crisis in German-American relations.

How far the consequent severe and general break in Stock Exchange prices resulted directly from belief in a serious outcome of the German submarine's exploit, and how far it merely reflected the sensitiveness of a market honeycombed with speculation, is a matter of conjecture. People familiar with Wall Street history know that, with the market in the position which it had attained last week, a much less important incident will often serve to change the speculative mood abruptly. As to the Gulflight incident itself, Wall Street opinion was certainly much mixed. Like all other Stock Exchanges, our own is always especially susceptible to "war talk" when it concerns ourselves. It also had to be recognized that there is matter of undoubtedly grave possibilities in the situation thus created by a reckless German captain and an equally reckless German Admiralty.

On the other hand, there was quite manifest, on Wall Street, a feeling that actual war would be an unlikely outcome of the matter. It was difficult, to begin with, for the financial community to imagine how there could be war, with no present possibility of military or naval contact between Germany and ourselves. Imagining such an outcome, our Ambassador at Berlin would come home, and we should lose the pleasing company of Count Bernstorff and Dr. Dernburg; after that, it would be hard to see what could happen. But Wall Street was scarcely inclined to let its imagination run even so far as that.

The Stock Exchange, in fact, though breaking heavily on the news, displayed a perhaps unexpected amount of resisting power. This led to renewed examination of the financial revival which had marked the month of April, and which carried even the actual volume of transactions on the Stock Exchange to the highest aggregate of any month in five years past. There have been many explanations based on actual economic facts in the present situation. But there is yet another, which has to do with the experience, not only of 1914 and 1915, but of the several preceding years.

It was clear to all men of experience in American finance that the liquidation of the panic of 1907, and of the financial excesses which in this country had preceded that year, was completed by the end of 1911. The usual interval of time between a great financial panic and the renewed forward movement of prosperity had elapsed. We had passed through every stage familiar to such intervals. The premature "boom" had occurred in 1909, as it did in 1895 and 1875; as in those after-panic periods, so in this, the process of necessary liquidation had been resumed and carried to a finish.

Our own financial history teaches that, when the process is really complete, the signal for resumption of prosperity is an immensely profitable harvest. That also came with 1912, when our wheat crop was the largest on record, except in 1901; our crops of corn, oats, rye, barley, and hay the greatest ever harvested, and our total agricultural exports worth more than in any preceding season.

The movement of American recovery began in 1912, as most people will remember, in the old-time form. It was stopped abruptly; all of us now know why. That wonderful consensus of judgment and prophetic insight, which belongs to the financial markets in the larger sense, recognized what was coming when the Balkan War broke out, in October, 1912. That war was ended; the Powers patched up the post-bellum settlement; all the world heard that the war clouds had definitely rolled away.

But there were three distinct quarters in which nothing was reflected except absolute skepticism over the permanence of the European truce, and absolute expectation of the war which finally came last August. The German Reichsbank, under the supervision of the German Government, never once, from the end of 1912 to midsummer, 1914, stopped gathering gold, in unprecedented quantity, from every attainable source, domestic or foreign. The middle-class Frenchman, who had hoarded his cash during the uncertainties of the Balkan War, kept it locked up and out of circulation, even after that war was over. The world's great financial markets continued their attitude of suspicion and depression, and the American revival was not resumed.

For this country, therefore, the period of after-panic liquidation, stagnation, and hesitation has been prolonged at least three years beyond its normal scope. During half of 1914, the avenues for investing surplus capital were absolutely blocked. A pent-up and very powerful force was necessarily created; it showed its existence emphatically, as soon as American investors were convinced that the war's baleful effect on American prosperity had passed.

These evident economic facts leave some considerations open. One is, the reason for the recent converging of speculative interest, not on the sound and tried securities, but on those of comparatively little-known enterprises which have secured a temporary windfall from the "war orders." The other is, exactly how even genuine American prosperity will be affected by the possible accidents of the European war itself, and by the European liquidation after war.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Bonner, G. The Girl at Central. Appleton. $1.30 net.
Campbell, D. R. The Proving of Virginia. Boston: Page. $1.25 net.
Dejans, E. The Life Builders. Harper. $1.35. net.
Ervine, St. John G. Alice and A Family. Macmillan. $1.25 net.
Frenssen, G. Holyland. Boston: Page.
Frenssen, G. Jörn Uhl. Boston: Dana Estes & Co.
Gerstenberg, A. The Conscience of Sarah Platt. Chicago: McClurg. $1.25 net.
Hewlett, W. A Child at the Window. Duffield. $1.25 net.
Lutz, G. L. H. Miranda. Phila.: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Mathews, B. John Williams, the Shipbuilder. Oxford University Press. 2s. net.
O'Donovan, G. Waiting. Mitchell Kennerley. $1.40 net.
Pillars of Smoke. Anonymous. Sturgis & Walton Co. $1.35 net.
Reeve, A. B. The War Terror. Hearst International Library Co. $1 net.
Reid-Girardot, M. Steve of the Bar—G Ranch. Hearst International Library Co. $1 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

An-Nujum Az-Zahira Fi Muluk Misr Wal-Kahira. Edited by William Popper. University of California Press.
Barbour, V. Henry Bennet: Earl of Arlington. Oxford University Press.
Benson, A. C. Hugh: Memoirs of a Brother. Longmans, Green. $1.75 net.
Devine, E. T. The Normal Life: Survey Associates, Inc. $1.07.
Dunsany, Lord. Fifty-one Tales. Mitchell Kennerley. $1.25 net.
English-Yiddish Encyclopedic Dictionary. Prepared Under the Editorship of Paul Adelson. Jewish Press Publishing Co.
Gordon, W. J. Flags of the World, Past and Present: Their Story and Associations. Frederick Warne & Co.
Sturt, H. Principles of Understanding. Cambridge University Press.
The Real United States and Canada Guide-Book. The Association of New York.

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GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Annual Report New York Produce Exchange. 1913-14. Privately printed.
Goethals, G. W. Government of The Canal Zone. Princeton University Press. $1 net.
Hodges, H. G. The Doctrine of Intervention. Princeton: The Banner Press. $1.50 net.
Russell, C. E. Why I Am a Socialist. Doran. 50 cents net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Burgess, J. W. The European War of 1914. Chicago: McClurg. $1 net.
Brainard, M. G. G. Campaigns of the 146th Regiment, New York State Volunteers. Putnam. $3 net.
Calendar of the Correspondence of George Washington. Vols. I and II. 1775-1778 and 1778-1780. Prepared from the original manuscripts in the library of Congress by John C. Fitzpatrick, Division of Manuscripts. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Crane, F. War and World Government. Lane. $1 net.
Gilman, B. Robert E. Lee. (True Stories of Great Americans). Macmillan. 50 cents net.
Glover, T. R. Poets and Puritans. London: Methuen & Co. 7s. 6d. net.
Marshall, H. R. War and the Ideal of Peace. Duffield. $1.25 net.
Maxim, H. Defenseless America. Hearst International Library Co. $2 net.
Sarolea, C. The Anglo-German Problem. Putnam. $1 net.
Souttar, H. S. A Surgeon in Belgium. Longmans, Green. $2.40 net.
Van Zile, E. S. The Game of Empires. Moffat, Yard. $1.25 net.

POETRY.

Binyon, L. The Winnowing Fan. (The New Poetry series.) Houghton Mifflin. 50 cents net.
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Galsworthy, J. The Little Man and Other Satires. Scribner. $1.30 net.
Mackay, C. D. Plays of the Pioneers. Harper. $1 net.
Upton, G. P. The Song: Its Birth, Evolution, and Functions. Chicago: McClurg. $1 net.

ART.

Noguchi, Y. The Spirit of Japanese Art. Dutton. 70 cents net.

JUVENILE.

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TEXTBOOKS.

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Gudeman, A. P. Cornelii Taciti Dialogus de Oratoribus. Berlin, Germany: B. G. Teubner.
Haertel, M. H. German Reader for Beginners. Boston: Ginn. 60 cents net.
Lincoln, M. J. The School Kitchen Textbook. Boston: Little, Brown. 60 cents net.
McFarland, B. W. A Practical Elementary Chemistry. Scribner.
Romero, T. S. Spanish in a Week. Third edition. New York: The T. S. Romero Spanish School.
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SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT OF FRESHMEN.

The announcement that, beginning with the autumn, all freshmen at Brown University will be required to take a one-hour course dealing with "the aim, scope, and value" of a college education, is possibly only in line with the action adopted by certain other Eastern universities in recent years. Freshmen at Harvard have lately been held more strictly to account by their advisers, and at Princeton the preceptorial system insures to freshmen counsel on many matters. Brown intends to go further still and to institute a course of orientation. "About one-fourth of the lectures," we are informed by the *Brown Alumni Monthly*, "will deal with the general relation of the student to the University; the others with the academic curriculum." And we learn that "no freshman will be able to pass through the year without explicit instruction as to the scope, meaning, and uses of college life." It is not necessary to suppose that the extreme of scientific management is here contemplated. Brown has, as we know, set herself against such instruments of the devil as "time-cards," and is not likely to let herself be drawn into anything very similar. Yet the announcement of this formal course will give pause to many a one who had looked to the East to check the mania for efficiency which has infected educational circles. The fear is that it will be accepted by certain State universities in the West as a sign of yielding to their leadership.

Both East and West should not forget that the freshman is as rare a bird as he is usually represented to be. Half-baby and half-man, it is the baby in him which has caught the eye of the caricaturist. He moves about, his first autumn in college, a stranger to his surroundings, exalted by them, and yet retiring into himself at the first indication that he has become the object of inspection. Just what goes on in his mind is almost as impenetrable as is the infantile world. In a way he is helpless, in another sense his sphere is quite complete with possibilities. In most cases disillusion has not yet set in, and in this great institution, even though he does not understand it, he sees manifold opportunities. Obviously this is both a dangerous stage of development and one filled with the utmost promise: dangerous, because the sudden release from the discipline of the preparatory school is almost more than the average boy can use to his advantage; promising, because this very freedom stirs the imagination. The problem of university authorities is to allow free play to the imagination and yet to forestall unthinking indolence.

It would, in our judgment, be a pity if the prospective course at Brown should become as formal as other portions of the curriculum. Part of the advice which freshmen need might well be set forth in solid terms. Thus the college library, for most freshmen, and indeed for many a student throughout his four years, remains a great monster, its lure and accessibility obscured simply because no intelligible map is furnished. At most the freshman penetrates only to those corners of the reading-room containing the books reserved for his particular courses. There used to be a tradition at one of the oldest universities in the East that it was bad form to be seen in the library. The right kind of talk could dispel such nonsense and could transform the library from a place of mere drudgery into one offering friendly haunts as well, even if but a handful should ever feel its full spell:

> Ille terrarum mihi praeter omnes
> Angulus ridet.

But a compulsory course on the library might easily become stereotyped.

A compulsory course on *any* portion of the freshman's superneeds sounds forbidding. It suggests reports and examinations; and to require a student to "pass" a test in what should normally be bound up with his most personal aspirations would very likely deprive these of their value. For a boy of any promise, not a course on the significance of a university, but a series of informal talks by specially qualified persons, ought to be sufficient. Lectures on the use of the college catalogue have an unpleasant suggestion of lectures on the making of athletic schedules, which latter, we are informed, now count for the A.B. degree in one of the largest State universities of the Middle West. It would be mischievous to add, in this manner, to the very prevalent superstition, among faculties and students alike, that nothing of any consequence can be learned without a course of lectures. A number of years ago Harvard invited some distinguished men to talk in the Union, on their respective professions, with a view to helping students decide upon their careers in after-life. Not the least admirable feature of the plan was the place chosen for these talks. Given in a lecture hall they would have savored of prescription.

We are aware, to be sure, of the problems to be met in these days of large enrolments. In some fashion the average stu-

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dent must be waked up before he has acquired the habit of indolence, and he is often a pretty dull fellow; sometimes lockstep seems to be the only pace that he can go. Yet we trust that before universities decide definitely to herd students thus, in the hope of instructing them in what may be termed overvalues, they will carefully consider the dangers involved. Without undue neglect of the average student, it is well to recognize that, after all, the lasting reputation of an institution is made by its exceptional products, and that these require considerable freedom in which to think for themselves. It is doubtful, moreover, whether the average student can be made to see the "open secret" even by demanding that his degree shall be conditioned upon his seeing it. Groping there will always be in college, and provided that a boy is not permitted to walk principally in the dark, groping is to be expected. It corresponds to what he will experience, in some measure at least, later on in life. Throw floods of light upon the system with which knowledge is divided and interrelated in the catalogue, the fact remains that a university worthy of the name is bigger than even its catalogue or its faculty, and more significant than any formal course of lectures can hope to determine.

"The aim, scope, and value" of a university—who shall say precisely what they are? Like inspiration got from books, they are not matters which in any profound sense can be taught, but must be discovered individually. The point becomes clear the moment one fancies oneself giving instruction in the meaning of, say, Oxford. The charm, the personality of the place would vanish if subjected to the pointer and rule. The danger will be that any present-day explanation of a university, formally conceived, will leave the impalpable further in the background than ever and will reduce the institution to a huge plant of which only such practical machinery as chemical laboratories and schools of business will take shape in the freshman's mind. Better than this would be the freshman's own unthinking judgment, which often is that a college training leads to no very tangible results, but "what do I care!" The freshman is wiser than he knows. He admits the mystery and accepts it. Dispel that mystery—that is, explain to one too young to understand that many a course is justified only because of the pleasures of the mind which much later it will create—and you destroy a jewel of great price.

The Religion of Punch

DOES THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIP MAKE A MAN TAME?

By FRANK AYDELOTTE.

It has for some years been evident to such persons as have had the curiosity to inquire about the matter that there is in the minds of many American college boys, and many college professors who are their advisers, a vague, intangible prejudice against the Rhodes Scholarships. This prejudice is not caused by the requirement of Greek. It is not a mere jingoistic objection to having anything to do with other than American universities. It is not due to the popular superstition that England is "behind the times" and hence as good as dead. Nor is it a result of the very widespread and very dense popular ignorance of what the scheme stands for, what are the conditions of obtaining an appointment, and what are the opportunities which an appointment opens.

The particular objection to which I allude is different from all these, founded much deeper in our national feeling, and much less frequently voiced in plain words. It is an objection based partly on observation of the Americans who have returned from Oxford. It represents a shrewd analysis of the effect which Oxford has had on them: it rests on a fact, but a fact misunderstood.

Perhaps the clearest statement of this objection is to be found in the verdict of a keen, emphatic, hard-driving, Middle-Western educator on an ex-Rhodes Scholar who was a candidate for a position in his educational institution: "He's a gentleman, he is a good scholar, and not afraid of work, but *he has lost his punch! Oxford has tamed him!*" There it is, roughly but adequately put! In the opinion of a certain class of American educators the effect of Oxford on American boys has been to tame them. They come back, say these men, well trained, possibly more thoroughly grounded in the fundamentals of their subjects than they would have been in America. They are pleasant fellows socially, they have plenty of energy and are ready to do hard work, they are not Anglomaniacs, they have no intention of trying to make America over on the English pattern (our objectors would take perhaps more joy in them and be less suspicious if they had), but they have lost that indefinable American characteristic known as *punch*.

I.

What is this quality which we so admire and for which we have no other name than the slang word *punch?* It is a quality which can be known truly only by its works, and they are mighty and innumerable. It is the ability to achieve the end without the means, the whole without the parts. It makes railways without money, churches without religion, literature without art, newspapers without news, and educational institutions without educated men. It is not, however, to be confused with *bluff*. It is not the quality which wins poker games without cards. It is *bluff* raised to a higher power; it survives "calling"—at least for a generation. The next generation pays, as in the case of the site of the Panama Canal.

Admiration for *punch* is not confined to the Western Hemisphere. All Europe admires this quality (though they will not always admit the fact) in our conduct of business. Englishmen who have spent a good part of their lives in the colonies admire it more than those who have stayed at home. And these are precisely the Englishmen with whom Americans are most comfortable. But the distinctive feature of American *punch* is that we do not confine its range to the world of business and practical life, but are beginning to extend it to the intellectual and spiritual world as well. A new type of college professor, a new type of preacher and lecturer and teacher is appearing among us—the man with *punch*.

Our fathers, so far as we of this generation can make out, did not know this man. In their churches and universities he would perhaps not have been tolerated; there are some places where he is not tolerated to-day. But he is extending his domains. The trend of the times is in his favor. This is an age of experiment in education. We no longer have the majority of our students taking a "classical" course, the subject-matter of which is more or less standard and fixed. We have very few "courses" to-day; under the elective system each student makes his own. In education at present we are engaged in trying all things. It looks sometimes as if, like the lady in "Piers Plowman," we had forgotten to turn over the leaf and learn that we must hold fast to that which is good.

The great difference between the education of the present and that of a few generations ago is not that we have substituted science and the modern languages for the classics. Nor is it that we have largely substituted bread-and-butter values for cultural. It is that in place of a standard and regular discipline we have now the tacit theory of the educational equality of all subjects and the anarchy of the elective system. The result is that our work is tentative and ineffective; our very degrees have lost their old meaning and acquired no new; the word education is one of the vaguest in our language. It does not follow that we are educationally on the road to perdition. More likely the reverse. Experiment and tentative efforts are the price of progress, and it is only by this means that a new educational discipline can be evolved, summing up the lessons of a longer past and meeting the needs of a more complex future.

But meanwhile, in the confusion, has come the opportunity of the man with *punch*. Lured by the magnitude of our educational system, he has invaded this field as he might have invaded South America or the Orient in business, using the same "practical" meth-

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ods, and insisting on the same immediate results. He has not been admitted everywhere, but he has been admitted and applauded too much. As a result of his efforts, our universities are organized for "efficiency," and "scientific management" threatens to tell men how to teach classes as well as how to lay bricks or load bars of pig iron on a car. Our university presidents tend to become captains of industry, and athletic sports tend to justify themselves not as sport, but as advertising.

The man with *punch* has commercialized education and advertised it, and in some cases well-nigh destroyed it. For the rough and ready methods, the impatience, the liking for show, the hasty contempt for thoroughness, the disregard of preparation and of finish, which are elements of a certain kind of machine-made success in the practical sphere, are handicaps in the world of intellect. A man with *punch* may be made into a philosopher, but in the process he will lose part of his admiration for *punch*. *Punch* is not so much the faculty of getting results as of getting the appearance of them. It is at bottom the talent for publicity, expressing itself always in "grand-stand play." Flashiness, show, advertising—all these qualities which it loves—are attributes of charlatanism in the intellectual world. And if the intellectual life means anything at all, it means never-ending opposition to charlatanism. Charlatanism is not only inimical to it, it is a complete and total negation of it. "Sainte-Beuve relates," says Arnold, "that Napoleon one day said, when somebody was spoken of in his presence as a charlatan: 'Charlatan as much as you please; but where is there *not* charlatanism?' 'Yes,' answers Sainte-Beuve, 'in politics, in the art of governing mankind, that is perhaps true. But in the order of thought, in art, the glory, the eternal honor is that charlatanism shall find no entrance; herein lies the inviolableness of that noble portion of man's being.'"

It may be that we shall find one day that charlatanism is not all a good in practical life, that it is worth while to have our clothing all wool as well as prominently advertised, our food pure as well as packed in fancy boxes. If we ever learn that, we shall probably learn it when our universities learn it, when they acquire more respect for thoroughness, when they promise less and perform more, when we teach our students the difference between really knowing a thing and half-knowing it, when we distinguish between shoddy work in the intellectual sphere and sound.

II.

That is the lesson which Oxford is teaching our American boys. They take various courses, the things they learn have various degrees of "practical" value, or perhaps no practical value at all. But when they return they are all firmly impressed with one thing: the necessity for thoroughness in intellectual work, the difference between knowledge and smatterings. And the inevitable effect of this is to sober them, to make them less disposed to pretend to know what they do not know, to make them settle down rather quietly and seriously to the work which they wish to do (or can find to do) at home.

It must be repeated that the writer is under no delusion that ex-Rhodes Scholars are the only Americans who do this. Our own universities have many hard-working, sound scholars and clear thinkers—men who spend their time in work and not in advertising. But too often they are not the men with the most influence, or the largest salaries, or the greatest reputations. Among the students which they send out are many more of the same sort. Only they are not always the loudest heralded of our graduates. And with the Rhodes Scholars there is likely to be one curious difference. Appointments to Oxford are made entirely by American committees. The qualifying examination (popular opinion to the contrary notwithstanding) is little more than a formality, testifying to a certain very small acquaintance with Latin and Greek, arithmetic, and algebra. Any man who has had a little classics can pass it, and a man with *punch* can pass it with almost no classics at all. Now, the man with *punch* is just the man who will not fear to attempt it, and he is also the man whom the committee of selection in his native State is likely to admire and to appoint to the scholarship. Nor is there anything to lament in this fact; *punch* is not so much a vice as a dangerous virtue; our young American may be the better for it, though perhaps not the more comfortable in Oxford at first. In Oxford he meets something new in his experience, something which he learns slowly to understand, and not merely to understand but to love. He is met by an attitude at once hospitable and critical—a democracy where men are known intimately and personally by one another and by their teachers, where ideas count as ideas, and character as character, where good intentions are not allowed to pass for knowledge, nor a ready memory for power of thought. There are shams in Oxford, it is true, but the spirit of the place is against them. Honesty and thoroughness are the most important characteristics of its intellectual life. The beauty of Oxford is built upon them, as all real beauty is. There are gigantic stupidities in Oxford, and in the men who rule Oxford from without, but there is also that in the spirit of the place which will dissolve them and conquer them and take away from them their power. Reforms in Oxford are slow, but they are always coming, and when they come they are not stupid reforms, sweeping away good and evil together to set up new good and evil in their place. Oxford has the patience to gather up the best of her traditions into her new self year by year and century by century, as she carefully preserves the best of her old buildings in her unceasing reconstructions.

Into this atmosphere and into this life comes our young American with his *punch*. He is not a bad man for Oxford on the whole; as I have said, he may be the better for his *punch*, and he will be better still when he returns from Oxford with his faith in *punch* shaken and a belief in quiet thoroughness in its place. But in his case the change is very evident, and our emphatic Middle-Western educator, instead of seeing the improvement, thinks his young protégé has been ruined by the experience.

Other Americans will not find him ruined, but the reverse. They will find him an ally in the battle which thoroughness is waging and must wage against charlatanism in our education and in our national life. The forces of thoroughness would have won the battle in this country without the aid of the Rhodes Scholarships. The evidence of their progress can be read more clearly every year. Our popular belief in method at the expense of knowledge, our worship of form at the expense of substance, our faith in administrative machinery at the expense of thought—all these elements of our intellectual life are doomed by forces that we have the power to generate and are generating ourselves. But in this battle, Oxford, by means of the Rhodes Scholarships, is furnishing a little band of recruits whose influence, never urged by organization or machinery, but quietly by individual thought and effort, will be felt more and more as the years go on, against the operation in our intellectual life of the American ideal of *punch*.

The Revival of Latin

RECENT EXPERIMENTS IN LATIN AS A LIVING LANGUAGE.

By GONZALES LODGE.

A striking phenomenon of the recent educational movement has been the revival of Latin as a practical tongue. The last part of the nineteenth century saw a steady tightening of the bonds of Ciceronianism in our schools until the current conception of Latin as a dead language was fast being confirmed in the minds of students as well as in those of the general public, and any suggestion that Latin was a living language that could be used for virtually any purpose for which any other living language could be used was regarded as a heresy closely bordering on the blasphemous. To the ordinary high-school pupil Latin died with the death of Vergil.

It is true that here and there distinguished scholars played with Latin translation, and occasionally enthusiastic schoolmasters tried to stem the tide. Thus that veteran educator of women, Dr. N. C. Brooks, published as early as 1864, his "Vitæ virorum illustrium Americæ a Columbo ad Jacksonum" (Barnes), which he designed to take the place of the well-known "Viri Romæ" of L'Homond (1727-1794), but the book made no impression, and is now almost inaccessible. In England there was nearly the same experience, although certain elementary reading books, such as Ritchie's "Fabulæ faciles," Latin in content and style, had a wide vogue in schools.

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When the increased virulence of the attacks on Latin towards the close of the century brought home to teachers on both sides of the water the necessity of meeting a serious situation, the English scholars bestirred themselves with characteristic energy to prove that Latin did not mean only the age of imperial Rome. The pioneer in this movement was Prof. E. A. Sonnenschein, of the University of Birmingham, who published in 1902 his "Ora maritima," a story of Britain in the time of the Romans. This met with so much success that it was soon followed by a more advanced book, "Pro Patria," a large part of which was devoted to a story of the Boer War. The movement thus inaugurated was greatly furthered by the experiment in teaching Latin as a modern language set on foot by Dr. Rouse at the Perse School, Cambridge. The eminent success of this experiment has led to the preparation of numerous modern Latin reading books, some ten, at least, having been published in the last few years. Most of these have been for elementary teaching, and have been ancient in content, but some have been frankly modern in every respect, as, for example, Godley's "Fables of Orbilius," where the curious may find capital versions of "Rip Van Winkle," Mark Twain's "Jumping Frog," and other favorites. The reaction in this country led to such ventures as Professor D'Ooge's "Story of a Roman Boy" and Professor Nutting's stories of our early Indian wars.

More ambitious books have also not been lacking. Early in the last century a Frenchman, G. F. Goffeaux, prepared a Latin version of Robinson Crusoe for French schools under the title, "De Robinsone Crusoëo." The same idea occurred independently some years later to an English professor, F. W. Newman, who produced a Latin version in 1861, which, however, was not published until 1884, under the title "Rebilius Cruso," "a book to lighten tedium to a beginner" (Trübner & Co.). These versions of the same story are curiously different. Goffeaux's book was reëdited for English pupils by P. A. Barnett in 1907 (Longmans), under the stimulus of the work of Professor Sonnenschein. The dedicatory letter of this edition to Kipling is well worth reading.

Meanwhile in America we have had an untiring and devoted apostle of modern Latin in Dr. Arcadius Avellanus. As early as 1893 he started in Philadelphia the publication of a Latin periodical called "Præco Latinus," which he continued for eight years with but slight encouragement from teachers of Latin. During this period he also published several textbooks in modern Latin, but these met with but indifferent success. In the recent movement he has naturally been very active, and recently two ambitious publications (made possible through the interest of Mr. E. Parmelee Prentice) have appeared from his pen. The one is a Latin version of Ruskin's "King of the Golden River," published early in 1914, and already out of print; the other, a much more extensive book of 316 pages, is a Latin version of Léon Cahun's "Les Aventures de Capitaine Magon," a story of the early history of Carthage. This book was published in 1875 for French children, and was soon afterwards translated into English and widely read. Dr. Avellanus has been most successful in reproducing the spirit of the original, and any one who delights in tales of adventure and danger must find this version most entertaining.

These two books amply demonstrate, if demonstration were needed, the continued youth and vitality of the Latin language and its adaptability to the expression of all phases of modern experience. We are informed that the "Pericla Nauarchi Magonis" is intended to be but the beginning of a series of similar versions. It is to be hoped that the response of the Latinists of the country will be sufficiently encouraging to insure the success of the undertaking. The "Pericla" is privately printed and may be obtained at Mr. Prentice's office, 37 Wall Street; price $5.

Academic Societies

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.

The annual general meeting of this, the oldest scientific society in America, was held this year in Philadelphia, from April 22 to April 24. The meeting was opened on Thursday afternoon by the President, Dr. W. W. Keen, who, with Vice-Presidents A. A. Michelson, W. B. Scott, and C. L. Doolittle, presided over the various sessions.

The session on Thursday afternoon was devoted to Mathematics and Physics. Prof. Robert A. Millikan, of the University of Chicago, gave a résumé of his brilliant series of experiments establishing the value of the elementary electric charge, and discussed some recent criticisms of his work.

Mr. Charles F. Brush, of Cleveland, described some interesting experiments showing that after specimens of carbon tool steel or tungsten steel are water-hardened, they spontaneously generate a considerable amount of heat, an effect which continues for more than a month and which is accompanied by a shrinkage in volume. Raising the temperature of the specimen, as in annealing, produces a further diminution of volume and presumably a further generation of heat. The conclusion is that the hardened steel is in a condition of great molecular strain, which is gradually relieved even at room temperatures with evolution of heat, an effect more pronounced during the process of annealing.

Prof. A. A. Michelson, of Chicago, described the recent progress made by him in the ruling of diffraction gratings. Gratings have been obtained up to ten inches in length, and it is planned to construct a ruling engine with which gratings of double this size may be ruled.

The morning session on Friday was given up to Zoölogy and Botany. A number of valuable papers were read discussing various aspects of the problem of heredity. Prof. George H. Parker, of Harvard, discussed the problem of adaptation as illustrated by the fur seals of the Pribilof Islands. Prof. Charles Baskerville, of New York, reported on experiments he had made on the evaporation of ether from oils. This work was done in connection with investigations pursued in collaboration with Dr. Gwathmey on the production of anæsthesia by rectal injection of mixtures of oil and ether. The mixture containing 75 per cent. ether was found most effective. The results have been most satisfactory and no injurious after-effects have been observed.

Dr. Allen J. Smith, of the University of Pennsylvania, summarized his investigations of the cause of the common disease of the gums (pyorrhea alveolaris). The origin is traced to an amœba, of which two forms have been shown to exist in the mouth. The disease may be completely checked by the use of a proper amœbicide.

A peculiarly timely address was by Charlemagne Tower, former Ambassador to Germany and Russia, on the rights and obligations of neutralized territory. Such territory, as Belgium and Switzerland, is guaranteed by neighboring Powers mainly for their own advantage. It is the obligation of such a neutralized nation to avoid alliances among contending nations unless her neutrality is violated, and it is her right to resist such violation. The Powers who have pledged the neutrality have at various times, as in the present case, considered their own interests paramount, and there is no authority to enforce the guarantees.

Of similar interest was a paper by Prof. Douglas W. Johnson, of Columbia, which discussed the influence of land forms upon the campaigns of the European war. It was shown that the violation of Belgian neutrality had a distinct topographic basis, as the nature of the ground made the alternate routes of German invasion much more easily defensible. The Russian plan of campaign is also largely controlled by the natural lines of defence.

Edwin B. Frost, Director of the Yerkes Observatory, reported upon observations made by him that different portions of the Orion nebula are in relative motion, showing an apparent rotation of the whole nebula. These results confirm the work done last year at the Observatory of Marseilles by an entirely different method. Other astronomical papers told of the continuation of the work carried on at Princeton under Prof. H. N. Russell upon eclipsing variable stars.

On Saturday afternoon was held a symposium on the Figure, Dimensions, and Constitution of the Earth. The subject was discussed from the astronomical standpoint by Frank Schlesinger, Director of the Allegheny Observatory, from that of geology by Prof. T. C. Chamberlin, of Chicago, while seismology was treated by Prof. Harry Fielding Reid, of Johns Hopkins, and geophysics by Prof. John F. Hayford, of Northwestern University. The discussion centred largely upon the question of the rigidity and viscosity of the earth, and upon the possible causes of the variation of latitude.

A reception was held on Friday evening at the Hall of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, at which William Morris Davis, professor emeritus of geology at Harvard, gave an illustrated lecture on "New Evidence for Darwin's Theory of Coral Reefs," based upon a voyage last year among the islands of the Pacific.

The meeting closed with the usual banquet on Saturday evening at the Bellevue-Stratford, which was attended by about one hundred members and guests. Ex-Gov. Simeon E. Baldwin responded to the toast, "The Memory of Franklin"; Prof. Harry Fielding Reid, of Johns Hopkins, to "Our Universities"; Prof. John D. Prince, of Columbia, to "Our Sister Societies," and Prof. M. D. Learned, of the University of Pennsylvania, to "The American Philosophical Society."

An interesting feature of the meeting was the presentation to the Society of a portrait of Provost Edgar F. Smith, of the University of Pennsylvania, a former president of the Society.

HORACE CLARK RICHARDS.

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The University of North Carolina

INAUGURATION OF PRESIDENT GRAHAM—AN HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE UNIVERSITY.

At Chapel Hill, on April 21, Dr. Edward Ridder Graham was formally inaugurated as president of the University of North Carolina. In many respects the occasion was epochal—at once a consummation and an inauguration: consummation, since it marks, after considerably more than a century of patient struggle on the part of the University, the final realization by the people of a vital sense of ownership; inauguration, since it heralds the beginning of an educational era and inspires with a new zeal for public service. The keynote of the occasion was the emergence of the University of North Carolina into full national recognition as that Southern institution which, in the most noteworthy way, has best embodied the idea of the State university.

The University of North Carolina was ordained of the people in the first Constitution of the State, adopted in 1776. The connection between the public-school system and the University was clearly regarded as organic by the drafters of the Constitution; section 41 thus reads: "A school, or schools, shall be established by the Legislature for the convenient instruction of youth . . .; and all useful learning shall be duly encouraged in one or more universities." An institution "having the great cause of humanity for its object" was thus created, and this institution is distinctive as the first of the State universities to be chartered (December 11, 1789). In point of actual service it is the oldest State university in the United States. The idea of the State university found its birth here. The creative genius of the University was the distinguished statesman, William Richardson Davie, perhaps the State's greatest (though adopted) son; and to him belongs the honor of being the first advocate of the elective system of studies in America. Davie's plan, adopted in 1795, in certain respects anticipates the work of Jefferson; its object, as avowed by its originator, was to form "citizens capable of comprehending, improving, and defending the principles of government; citizens who from the highest possible impulse, a just sense of their own and the general happiness, would be induced to practice the duties of social morality." It was in this same year, 1795, that the doors of the University were thrown open—since that time to close only once, for a brief interval, during the period of Reconstruction.

For the first decades of its existence, the institution was under the influence of the educational policies of Princeton; the very provision in the Constitution for its establishment is attributed to Waightstill Avery, a graduate of Princeton. Following the Rev. David Ker, educated at Trinity College, Dublin, as first "presiding professor," came Charles W. Harris, a first-honor graduate of Princeton, who frankly stated (1796) with reference to the University of North Carolina: "We imitate Nassau Hall in the conduct of our affairs as much as circumstances will admit." With his own *alma mater* of Princeton as ideal, he could nevertheless unreservedly say of North Carolina: "The constitution of this college is on a more liberal plan than that of any other in America." Following the departure from the State in 1805 of Davie, whose influence in matters of university policy had been all-powerful, Joseph Caldwell, the first "president," assimilated North Carolina yet more closely to Princeton, whence he was graduated in 1791. It is worthy of note that as early as 1796 Harris acknowledged that "our education at Princeton was shamefully and inexcusably deficient in experimental philosophy." The curriculum during Caldwell's administration gives great prominence, on that account, it is believed, to mathematical as well as to classical studies. Much attention was devoted also to the cultivation of oratory, to which circumstance is attributable the distinction in public life attained by so large a proportion of the alumni. Chapman, the second president, continued to maintain at North Carolina the traditions of Princeton, his *alma mater*.

The period of forty years (1817-1857) which followed exhibits the institution's transition from the influence of Princeton to that of Yale. Dr. Elisha Mitchell, after whom was named the highest peak east of the Rocky Mountains; the eminent scientist, Dr. Denison Olmsted, who, under the auspices of the Legislature of North Carolina, began a geological survey of the State, the first ever undertaken in this country, and Ethan Allen Andrews, professor of ancient languages, left the impress of Yale upon the University; the disciples of Dwight, working in harmony with those of Witherspoon, produced here a harmonious blending of the methods and ideals of Yale and Princeton. The period of the administration of David Lowry Swain (1835-1868) is conspicuous chiefly by reason of its material progress, the increase in the number of students (which at one time rose to almost 500), the general stimulus to historical research, and the establishment of schools of law and engineering. The ill-starred incumbency as president (1869-1870) of Dr. Solomon Paul, under Reconstruction rule, brought the University to an untimely close. The reopening in 1875 marks the beginning of the new and great era in her career as a State university.

The educational crusade in the South, led by North Carolina, and captained by such men as Alderman, McIver, Joynes, and Aycock, all students of its University, has been the supreme contribution thus far of the modern University. During the decade from 1900 to 1910 the percentage of illiteracy among the whites of North Carolina over ten years of age was reduced from 19.4 to 12.3; among the negroes from 47.6 to 31.9, and among both from 28.7 to 18.5. No State in the country shows so large a decrease in illiteracy among the whites during this period as North Carolina, and it is primarily to its University and her influence that this educational advance must be credited. Battle, the first high leader in the new epoch, who has told in memorable fashion the story of the University, which is the story in large measure of one whole division of the Union; Winston, who effectively aroused the people to a realization of the University as a social asset; Alderman, the eloquent spokesman of a democratic people, voicing in continental terms the larger educational ideals of the age, and Venable, scientist and builder, laying material foundations for future growth—these have paved the way for the new task of the twentieth century.

In a commonwealth adequately described by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler as the "most American of all the sisterhood of States," a commonwealth which has a greater per cent. of native-born people than any other State in the Union, the new president of this University of more than 1,000 students has a unique and distinctive task. The task is monumental; the financial means for its accomplishment quite inadequate. A democrat to his finger-tips, a scholar and an essayist, he enters upon his task with full vision of the evident destiny of the institution he has been called to direct. He conceives the whole State in all of the manifestations of its life as the direct and immediate concern of the University. "Extension," he interprets in his inaugural address, "not as thinly stretching out its resources to the State boundaries for the purpose of protective expansion, nor as carrying down to those without the castle walls broken bits of learning, but as the radiating power of a new passion, carrying in natural circulation the unified culture of the race to all parts of the body politic." This new ideal of educational extension he has already exemplified in many conspicuous ways, during the brief term of his service as acting president and president, in night schools for negroes, high-school debates on an immense scale, rural-life conferences, road institutes, county surveys, the official establishment of community service week to be observed by the people of the whole State, correspondence courses for industrial workers, etc., as well as the more conventional activities fostered by the universities of the Middle West. It is an attempt to realize, in the light of modern social theories and ideas, the true mission of the university in a democratic State, and the spectacle is one of national interest.

ARCHIBALD HENDERSON.

REVIEWS

AN EXAMINATION OF THE TEXTBOOKS PUBLISHED SINCE LAST AUTUMN.

EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

A book that offers material for reflection is F. V. Thompson's "Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools," the latest number of the School Efficiency series, edited by Paul H. Hanus (World Book Co.; $1.50). Mr. Thompson's discussion of commercial education, which he believes to be thus far a failure, is based in large part upon his contribution, which is here reprinted, to the Hanus report upon the New York city schools. There he discovered that the commercial high schools were avoided by the better pupils. His explanation is that these schools do not really prepare for commercial life. The clerical subjects, bookkeeping, stenography, and typewriting, which constitute the bulk of the "commercial" work, are shown by investigation to meet the needs of only 13.8 per cent. of those entering business, while "merchandising" and "salesmanship" represent the needs of 39.5 per cent. Real commercial education should therefore prepare (for example) for salesmanship. Mr. Thompson proposes to meet the situation by closer coöperation between the schools and the business men, and in particular by the method of dividing the pupil's time between school and business, which appears to have been found successful in industrial education.

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The deeper question, however, is whether "commercial education" as a whole is not the product of a forced analogy. Mr. Thompson appears to rely largely upon the analogical argument. For example, in deploring the lack of teachers with commercial experience, he points to the schools of law and medicine to show that men capable of earning large incomes in their profession are willing to take up teaching from altruistic motives. Apparently he forgets that the task of finding such men, especially in law, is notoriously difficult; and that medical schools have great difficulty in procuring physicians who will not use their position to enlarge their practice. In any case, law and medicine are learned professions, in which efficiency is not necessarily measured by pecuniary return; it is difficult to see how an efficient salesman, content with a teacher's work and salary, would not be violating the standards of his occupation. Further, upon reading the replies from business men which Mr. Thompson has printed, one gathers the impression of indifference. Most of them appear still to be only too well pleased if they can find candidates proficient in the three R's. Mr. Thompson argues from the fact that so many pupils leave the high school that something must be wrong either with the pupil or with the school. But it may be only that for these pupils the school has done all that school can do.

Under the title of "Educational Psychology: Briefer Course" (Teachers College, Columbia University; $2), Prof. Edward L. Thorndike presents a simpler treatment (as if it were not all simple) of the material contained in his three books, "The Original Nature of Man," "The Psychology of Learning," and "Work and Fatigue and Individual Differences." We can imagine readers who, after studying Professor Thorndike's picture of the human being as a set of original tendencies mechanically combined, will still inquire for the psychology. Yet even they will find the work interesting. Professor Thorndike's "straightforward presentation of principles" has the advantage of leaving a clear impression. The collection of facts and tables presented under the head of "individual differences" offers material for interesting study. And in any case his point of view is one that must be taken into consideration.

"Principles of Secondary Education," written by a number of specialists and edited by Paul Monroe (Macmillan; $1.90), is a comprehensive treatment of the high school and its problems, noteworthy for the generally high level of the contributions (several of which are taken from the "Cyclopedia of Education"), and for the amount of solid matter, in the form both of information and of discussion, to be found in its 774 pages. Among the more striking contributions we may mention the interesting chapter on European Schools by Frederic O. Farrington; the chapter on Moral Education, in which Edward O. Sisson has given life and meaning to a trite but difficult subject, and the sane treatment of athletics by Clark W. Hetherington. The book is to be recommended to high-school teachers.

Less stimulating, but useful from the standpoint of completeness of treatment and of necessary information, is Samuel Chester Parker's "Methods of Teaching in High Schools" (Ginn; $1.50), a textbook which is the outgrowth of the author's experience in teaching educational methods at the University of Chicago. Much of the discussion is more or less obvious, but the book is well written and well constructed, and full of illustrative material.

"Types of Teaching," by Lida B. Earhart (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25), is a typical illustration of formal pedagogy. The Introduction, by Prof. Henry Suzallo, tells us that "teachers in the secondary schools will find in this treatise much that is novel." This, if true, is a severe reflection upon the teachers in the elementary schools. The book is neatly written, but it contains little that should not be obvious to a person of average intelligence. The first chapter foreshadows a rather extreme pragmatism which promises to be interesting, but seems to have been forgotten in the later chapters.

The little book entitled "The Lesson in Appreciation," by Frank Herbert Hayward, inspector of schools for the London County Council (Macmillan; 75 cents), is at least stimulating and companionable. One may believe that Mr. Hayward has mastered the art of "red letter lessons" and of creating "the first impression," but whether his instructions will solve the problem for others is another question. What is suggested rather—by the fact, indeed, that his essay is concerned as much with æsthetics as with pedagogics—is that the chief means of arousing appreciation of beauty or of literary significance in the pupil is a lively and intelligent appreciation on the part of the teacher.

"The Administration of Education in a Democracy," by Horace A. Hollister (Scribner; $1.25), is founded upon the conviction that "the time is here" for the treatment of the field of educational administration as an organic whole—as if the idea were new. Yet the book is suspiciously like other works upon school administration. Judged by itself, the book is mainly a systematic and useful compilation of administrative facts, pervaded by the idea of representative control of the schools by the people. It seems, however, that the writer's democracy breaks down somewhat when he reaches the crucial point; school boards, we learn, are to elect educational experts and thereafter hold their peace.

No one need read very far into Elnora Whitman Curtis's "The Dramatic Instinct in Education" (Houghton Mifflin; $1) to suspect that the book comes from Clark University. The book is an interesting example of the questionnaire-card-catalogue type of book, built upon a doctor's thesis. Note your material upon cards; sort your cards under convenient headings, such as "The Theatre-going of Children," "Dramatic Work in Schools and Colleges," "Play," "Dancing," "Story-Telling," and "Moving Pictures"; then arrange the cards of each pack into an order as connected as may be, and the work is done. Many of Miss Curtis's cards are interesting, and the book shows careful preparation, but there is a complete absence of unifying idea and personal conviction. Some of her observations, however, are suggestive: for example (in connection with moving pictures): "What will be the psychological effect upon mental imagery of so much visual presentation, of intense and long-continued concentration upon attention, of the prolonged tension and excitement upon sustained and quiet thinking, remains to be seen." This question may be recommended to those who are advocating moving pictures as a method of class instruction.

CLASSICS.

GREEK.

Now that there is small hope of the present generation's witnessing the completion, or, for that matter, the inception of the Greek Thesaurus on a scale commensurate with that of the great Latin Thesaurus, every classical scholar will cordially welcome the appearance of Crönert's revision of Passow's Greek Dictionary, three instalments of which have already reached this country (Lemcke & Buechner; Lieferungspreis, 3.20 marks). So thorough has this revision been, to judge from the opening pages, that Crönert might well have imitated the practice of his predecessor, Passow, in his omission of the name of Schneider from the title-page after the third edition, and entitled the work Crönert's Wörterbuch. Like the old Passow, the new dictionary, which when completed will contain, it is expected, about fifty fascicules, is to comprise all the Greek authors from Homer to the Byzantine Age, in some cases even including writers of this period. Careful attention will be given to the authors of the classical age through Aristotle, and the results will be based as far as possible upon the special dictionaries which have thus far been completed for individual authors. It is, however, in its new features that this dictionary will particularly commend itself to the classicist. The enrichment of our lexical material in the past few years has been so great that some exploitation of it has been sadly needed. Sources hitherto neglected are now for the first time systematically brought into use. Not only are the inscriptions and the papyri laid under contribution, but even the coins, gems, and vases become serviceable material for the study of words and are made to yield the necessary information. Furthermore, the specific knowledge afforded by the ancient lexicographers, grammarians, and scholiasts has been thoroughly sifted and utilized, and all dialectal matter turned to practical account. Every effort, it would seem, has been made to bring the work up to the high standards of modern scholarship. An especially valuable and novel feature is the brief historical conspectus, appended to the treatment of the more important words, recording their occurrence or non-occurrence in the various literary forms. It is to be hoped that nothing will prevent the editor and those associated with him from bringing this important undertaking to a successful conclusion.

LATIN.

The first volume of the long-expected new Oxford Livy, by R. S. Conway and C. F. Walters, contains Books I-V, edited by R. S. Conway (Clarendon Press; $1). For thirteen years the editors have been prosecuting their labors, and this first instalment shows not only the magnitude of the task but the completeness of its accomplishment. Perhaps no important Latin text has been so generally neglected, especially in the first decade, as Livy, and this in spite of the untiring work of several distinguished students and the fact that this author's work was the first of which a critical edition was published, that of Alschefski (Books I-XXIII, in 1841). Consequently the present editors have had to begin their critical work almost from the beginning, recollating old manuscripts and verifying currently accepted readings. We have, therefore,

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in this text a great advance on all its predecessors, and so far as the *apparatus criticus* goes a practically new equipment. Some interesting minor discoveries have been made in the course of the editors' studies, as, for example, the fact that the editor responsible for the division of Livy into chapters was Jan Gruter, in his Frankfurt edition of 1612.

The edition of Cæsar's "Gallic War," books I-II, by E. Riess and A. L. Janes (American Book Co.; 85 cents), is designed primarily to meet the requirements of the New York State Education Department in intensive reading. The words included in the New York City syllabus are printed in full-faced type in the text in the order of occurrence, reminding us of one of the chief features of the old inductive series. The notes, which are equally complete on each book, are brief but good, and seem designed to help the pupil rather than to relieve him of labor. They frequently take the form of questions directed to the points of difficulty, an old practice which has gone out of fashion in recent years. Strings of grammatical references are eliminated by the inclusion of the now almost universal grammatical appendix. The necessary material for Prose Composition, though in the shape of detached sentences, forms a complete story of Cæsar's early campaigns. The illustrations are numerous and good, the vocabulary not overloaded with renderings.

E. H. Sturtevant's edition of the "Andria" of Terence (American Book Co.; 72 cents) is distinguished from other editions for college students most obviously by its introduction. Here, instead of the usual information in regard to the development of comedy among the Greeks and its transfer to Rome, we find the various stages in its growth indicated by summaries with numerous quotations of representative Greek and Latin plays. Old Greek comedy is represented by the "Birds" of Aristophanes, Euripides, as a potent influence on the content of Greek comedy, by "Iphigenia Among the Taurians," the New Attic comedy by Menander's "Girl with Shorn Locks," Plautus by the "Hidden Treasure." Instead of the customary life of Terence, Suetonius's "Vita Terenti" is edited with notes. The commentary, which is at the bottom of the page, is full, careful, and strictly scientific. The editor, in his eagerness to use the play as a means for instruction in Latin philology, has left completely out of sight the literary value. Stage directions help the comprehension, and are well thought out, but nowhere is any indication given that the editor is treating a work of art. This attitude is unfortunately too prevalent in our modern textbooks, but a book, otherwise so competent as this, should have shown the way to better things.

E. B. Lease's edition of Books I, XXI, and XXII, of Livy took high rank immediately upon its publication in 1905 as a work of thorough and sympathetic scholarship and a distinct contribution to our knowledge of Livian language and style. Its very excellence in this respect seems to have impaired its usefulness for college students, and the present edition (Heath; $1.25) has kept their needs particularly in view. To this end the introduction has been much shortened, particularly in the treatment of the syntax and style of Livy, and more attention has been paid to the place of Livy as an historian and an artist. In the commentary, too, less attention is given to minutiæ of language, while in the notes on the first book the great importance of this part for the study of the folk-lore of early Rome has been emphasized. The commentary shows everywhere evidence of thorough mastery, and is to be commended for the absence of the common vice of American textbooks, too much translation. The history itself is carefully criticised in the light of our other sources, and occasional quotations from English literature do much to illustrate peculiarities of usage. There is also an unusually large supply of maps, and many illustrations. In connection with this edition a small but excellent pamphlet by E. H. Haight on "Carthage and Hannibal" (Heath) will serve as a special introduction to the twenty-first book.

"Latin Selections," illustrating public life in the Roman Commonwealth in the time of Cicero, by A. A. Howard (Ginn; $1), is intended to furnish pertinent matter, supplementary to the study of Roman public life. It is thus a kind of source-book, and as the majority of students are as a rule ignorant of the sources of our knowledge of the details of Roman law and administration, it is likely to be useful. At the same time it might afford some assistance to teachers of Cicero's speeches. The selection does not aim at completeness, but even so, one misses so fundamental a basis as the laws of the Twelve Tables, as well as some well-known early acts. No notes are added "in order that any teacher who may use the book may be absolutely free to emphasize only such points as have special interest to him." But this is a mistake, for both language and subject matter often require elucidation, and some regard should have been had for those who might use the book independently. References to literature and to additional material might well also have been added.

"Beginners' Latin by the Direct Method," by E. C. Chickering and H. Hoadley (Scribner; $1), is noteworthy as being the first attempt to provide American teachers with a textbook in the direct method suited to our conditions and needs. The result is in many respects very different from the English books. Thus the vocabulary employed is more in line with that used in our other first-year books, and the syntax included is essentially that recommended in the well-recognized syllabi. The reading material differs also from that used in the "Primus Annus" in being almost all of modern content. Thus we find "Little Red Riding Hood," "Casabianca," "Jack and the Bean Stalk," "Pied Piper," and many others so simply presented as to be readily understood by the youngest pupil, and made as realistic as possible by carefully executed illustrations. The Teachers' edition contains an elaborate introduction with minute directions as to the handling of every lesson, many of which will prove serviceable also to teachers of the old school. There is an evident desire to forestall the criticisms that have been made on the English books, for such difficult matters as Indirect Discourse are introduced early and are made the subject of constant drill, as a preparation for reading Cæsar in the second year. Teachers interested in trying the Direct Method will find this book stimulating and suggestive.

"A First-Year Latin Course," by J. B. Smiley and H. L. Storke (American Book Co.; $1), is apparently a revision under a new title of the same authors' "Beginners Latin Book," published in 1898. But, while a great deal of the older book has been retained, the changes have been so radical that the new title seems fully justified. The vocabulary has been almost entirely limited to words occurring at least five times in Cæsar, and these words are gathered into word-lists at convenient intervals. The newer views as to quantity and pronunciation find their proper place. The syntax has been presented from the English point of view. It has not been "thought best to assume the pupil's knowledge of even the simplest facts of English grammar," a statement the recognized truth of which should put to shame our teachers of English. An important feature of the new book is the wealth of good illustrations. English derivatives are well treated and in general the material is presented clearly and systematically. Too much attention is devoted to the less usual syntactical usages, but this blemish is hard to remove, though progress in the simplification of the first-year work is becoming increasingly more evident.

CLASSICAL SCHOLARSHIP.

The well-known work of Sir John Edwin Sandys, "A History of Classical Scholarship," has been condensed by the author from three volumes into one, called "A Short History of Classical Scholarship" (Cambridge University Press; 7s. 6d.). The larger work, with its compact array of facts and its frequent bibliographical notes, is a highly useful book of reference for the scholar. The abridgment will prove a valuable and inexpensive *vade mecum* for the student. It preserves intact the merits of the original; the camera has been skilfully adjusted, and reproduces the same picture on a smaller scale. Minor rearrangements and corrections have been made, such as the substitution of the real for the spurious portrait of Hemsterhuys—a commendable change, for the two faces are about as similar as the characters of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde. The serviceable index includes under each author's name a list of the important editions of his works. Readers in this country will note with interest two new names in the galaxy of American scholars, John Henry Wright and Morris Hicky Morgan, both of Harvard University. The College of William and Mary, not noticed in the earlier work, now receives its due in the brief sketch of American universities.

ENGLISH.

LANGUAGE.

If the study of grammar has fallen into disrepute in the schools, it is surely in part due to the fact that most school grammars treat the subject, when not as a mere collection of handy rules, as a branch of dialectics. Yet from such a method is likely to come neither a rigorous training in logic nor yet a healthy attitude towards language. There is more to be hoped from a study of grammar which grounds itself broadly on the now ample materials afforded by the history of the language. There is no reason why even the high-school student should not get a glimpse of his language as something which has reached its present form through many interesting centuries of change. Teachers who are looking for a book which will perspicuously state the facts of present English grammar and seek the explanations, not in Latin nor in metaphysics, but in the historical development of English itself, will welcome

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"An English Grammar," by Profs. Alma Blount and Clark S. Northup (Holt; 80 cents).

Another method of presenting the material—the chronological—is adopted by Prof. Charles Noble in his "Story of English Speech" (Badger; $1). A discussion of the changes in vocabulary, sounds, and forms from Old to Modern English is followed by tables of grammatical forms and specimens of Old and Middle English texts. The present volume is not likely to supplant the several excellent books which already provide much of this material. The treatment of sounds is especially unsatisfactory, and the texts chosen are not always of the most recent editing.

A thoroughly sound and readable exposition of the principles of linguistic study is Prof. Leonard Bloomfield's "Introduction to the Study of Language" (Holt; $1.75 net). Designedly conservative in its treatment, the book introduces unity into a wide field. The discussion of phonetics, of morphologic and syntactic classifications, of the principles of linguistic change, find their illustrations in a wide variety of languages; and throughout there is illuminating contact with psychology and ethnology. A chapter of practical suggestions and an outline of the history of philology conclude the volume.

Some attention to historical relations and a less clumsy phonetic notation would have made a better book of Sir James Wilson's "Dialect of the New Forest" (Oxford University Press; 2s. 6d.). Merely as a record, however, it is useful, for unspoiled dialect is fast disappearing, and even the general reader may feel some interest in the language of the village of Burley—precisely the sort of German that Mr. Hardy heard in the lanes of Wessex the other day, and the lineal descendant of King Alfred's English.

The appearance of a second edition of Joseph and Elizabeth Wright's "Old English Grammar" (Oxford University Press; 6s. net) is evidence that students have found useful its lucid and compact expositions of the Germanic bases of Anglo-Saxon. New notes, relating chiefly to modern dialectical survivals, and expansion of the discussion of such subjects as stress, ablaut, and third-class weak verbs, increase the size of the volume by some ten pages. The revision has evidently been painstaking.

RHETORIC.

The books on composition are tending towards specialization. Not many attempt to stimulate writing in so many different directions as Alfred M. Hitchcock's "New Practice-Book in English Composition" (Holt; $1.10), or lead the youthful students through the rules of grammar, the elegances of rhetoric, even to versification and proofreading. For the most part the teaching is by means of example and the subject matter uniformly restricted to exposition, as in Prof. R. A. Jelliffe's "Handbook of Exposition" (Macmillan; 90 cents), where each chapter discusses the subject briefly from a definite point of view, and closes with a sound illustrative example. To this type, in the main, belongs also "Essays in Exposition" (Ginn; $1.30), by the members of the English department of the University of California, to which Dr. Kurtz prefixes a chapter on logic and Dr. Cory one on style.

Material in another form is provided in Prof. Thomas H. Brigg's "Laboratory Manual of Letters" (Ginn; 25 cents). They are real letters occasioned by real situations in the lives of young people, and many of them are "alright."

Nearly a hundred "Specimen Letters" are chosen by Prof. A. S. Cook and Mr. Allen R. Benham (Ginn; 35 cents), from the acknowledged masters of the art, from Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, Gray, and Walpole, to R. L. Stevenson, with Cicero and Pliny in an appendix.

"Outlines and Summaries," a small volume by Prof. Norman Foerster (Holt; 35 cents), is devoted exclusively to the art of making compact analyses of expository writing. Excellent examples are furnished.

But not all the rhetorics have abandoned the older method of precise precept and horrible example. A thoroughly practical reference book of this kind is "The Study and Practice of Writing English," by Dr. Gerhard R. Lomer and Margaret Ashman (Houghton Mifflin; $1.10). Beginning with punctuation, the book tells the student a great deal that he needs to know in matters of spelling and grammar, and provides him with exercises to practice on until he has learned it. The discussion of the forms of discourse is limited to pointed suggestion of the most practical sort, but there is frequent reference to more ample and theoretical treatments of the subject.

Prof. Frank Aydelotte, of the University of Indiana, has followed up his "College English" of 1913 with "Materials for the Study of English Literature and Composition" (Oxford University Press; 75 cents). As in his earlier book Professor Aydelotte believes that the study of English composition should be a study of ideas. He virtually abandons to others the whole matter of spelling, punctuation, and the like, believing that "they are matters . . . that cannot be profitably taught in college, but must be learned in the secondary schools." This seems unsatisfactory, for we all know that many college freshmen are pitifully weak in elementary matters of English composition. But Professor Aydelotte's position should not be misunderstood. "When I say that the student should have mastered these subjects in . . . schools," he explains, "I mean that he should . . . be able to make his writing passably correct in these respects *when he takes pains*." To make him take pains, Professor Aydelotte thinks, "the teacher of English will find in ideas connected with English literature his most effective subject-matter." Accordingly, he prints in this volume of "Materials" some excellent selections from Newman, Arnold, Huxley, Ruskin, and Carlyle as a basis for study, discussion, and composition. These selections are all indubitably literature, and therefore far better worth study than are some of the passages in recent books of "specimens," whose authors have, to say the least, moved rather far out into the suburbs of literature in order to "interest" their pupils. In the hands of a humanistic teacher this book should do much to awaken freshmen who have never realized the basis, scope, and power of literature. But we cannot feel that a book so restricted in its universe of discourse will best accomplish its task—whether that task be conceived as primarily a study of literature or of composition—unless it is supplemented either by an extraordinary teacher or by one of the more conventional manuals.

LITERATURE.

Mr. Walter S. Hinchman's "History of English Literature" (Century; $1.30 net) takes the eye at once by the beauty and appropriateness of its many pictures. It is rich in bibliographical suggestions and chronological outlines; and there is a literary map of England. The text manages to convey a good deal of information at high speed; but the author should not have been betrayed into saying that "poor Piers the Plowman fell a-dreaming on Malvern Hills."

In "American Literature for Secondary Schools" (Macmillan; $1) Prof. William B. Cairns tells a plain, unvarnished tale in which nearly everybody is at least mentioned. Each chapter is followed by full and definite directions for further reading and study which look in the highest degree helpful. A chronological outline of some thirty pages closes the volume.

A place for a book of this sort is found by Prof. Arthur H. R. Fairchild in his stimulating study, "The Teaching of Poetry in the High School" (Riverside Educational Monographs, Houghton Mifflin; 60 cents). His method is a sound one—to supply the student with some necessary background before proceeding to the study of the poem; what this background shall be is conditioned by the character of the poem. A stenographic report of a clever teacher's class hour in "Andrea del Sarto" is included.

In the attractively bound series of English Readings for Schools appears "A Book of Short Stories" (Holt), edited by Prof. Stuart P. Sherman. The editor has brought together, arranged in rough chronological order, ten different writers represented by thirteen stories, not all of them hackneyed. They are accompanied by occasional notes and by discriminating comment on the author's life and work. The introduction attempts to establish some standards for the short story, to distinguish certain types of story, and to propose some critical considerations on the value of this *genre* of fiction. For the eager college student or the mature general reader it would be difficult to select and compress more helpful material within the same compass. But it may be questioned whether the high school boys and girls for whom the collection has presumably been prepared will feel especially illuminated to learn of Aristotle's standard that the fable must be "of a certain magnitude," or that Henry James "is cosmopolitan and concerned rather with social than with geographical areas."

Among books of selections Essays rule the favorite. "Selected Literary Essays from James Russell Lowell" appears in the Riverside Literature series (Houghton Mifflin; 60 cents), under the editorship of Profs. Will D. Howe and Norman Foerster. "A Book of English Essays" (Holt; 45 cents), representing a dozen great names from Bacon to Stevenson, is the selection of Prof. C. T. Winchester. A more modern touch appears in the "Selected Essays" (Houghton Mifflin; 40 cents), edited by Dr. Claude M. Fuess, which besides the "ancients" includes Benson, Crothers, Miss Repplier, and Dean Briggs.

To Merrill's English Texts (40 cents) has been added "Tales and Poems by Edgar Allan

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Poe," edited by Dr. Frederick H. Law. A selection of "Old Testament Narratives" has been made by Mr. Charles E. Rhodes for the Lake English Classics (Scott, Foresman; 40 cents). Skilful summaries render the narrative virtually continuous and paragraphs and the use of quotation marks rest the eye.

Two well-made Shakespearean volumes are on the list: "Macbeth," edited by H. J. C. Grierson (Oxford University Press; 1s. 6d.), and "Much Ado About Nothing" in the New Hudson Shakespeare (Ginn; 50 cents), under the editorship of E. Charlton Black. The "Sir Roger de Coverley Papers" (Holt; 35 cents) have found a new editor in Prof. N. E. Griffin.

In the very day when school and college libraries are receiving additional funds and attention, there is a multiplication of books which are in themselves small libraries. The two sorts of activity are not competitive, but are both evidences of the desire to make first-hand material available to the student. To make up a volume representative of the whole course of American literature is, of course, impossible. To make one up exclusive of fiction is more nearly achievable. The problem becomes at once that of selecting with sufficient fulness from a limited number, and of resisting the temptation to multiply authors and selections at a total loss of relative significance. The recent book of Misses Calhoun and MacAlarney ("Readings from American Literature"; Ginn; $1.40) is pretty nearly the best of its kind which has been put out. It devotes about one-quarter to the period before 1800, and is fairly representative from then on, with sufficiently extensive selections from the greatest writers to set them in a proper perspective. The book by Mr. R. B. Pace ("Readings in American Literature"; Allyn & Bacon; $1), less than one-half as big, maintains about the same proportions, but is of necessity only half as valuable, even though the brief notes at the end give it some extra title to attention. It is an extraordinary fact that neither of these books gives place to Crèvecœur's "Letters from an American Farmer," although these essays are among the most notable half-dozen productions written in America before 1800. Mr. Pace issues as a companion to his volume a textbook of "American Literature" (Allyn & Bacon; $1).

Addison's complete works are difficult to obtain, and selections from them are usually short, over-edited affairs intended for students. So there was real originality in conceiving the present edition ("Essays of Joseph Addison," chosen and edited, with a preface and a few notes, by Sir James George Frazer, 2 vols. Macmillan; $3 net), which, like the other volumes of the Eversley series, is a book for the library, and which contains nearly one hundred and seventy-five papers, twenty-four from the *Tatler*, 128 from the *Spectator*, twelve from the *Guardian*, one from the *Lover*, and eight from the *Freeholder*. This is, to be sure, considerably less than a half of Addison's essays, and many readers will wonder at some of the omissions. The eighteen famous papers on "Paradise Lost" are all left out—a serious editorial blunder in the opinion of the present reviewer. If space could not be found for the papers in which the twelve books of the poem are separately criticised, it might have been possible to include the six more general essays which open the series, or, at the very least, the highly important paper (*Spectator* No. 291) in which Addison considers the equipment and methods of a good critic. In general, the critical papers come off rather badly in this edition. Of the series on Tragedy (*Spectator* 39, 40, 42, and 44) the first two are omitted. Of the series on False Wit only two out of the six appear. One particularly regrets the omission of No. 63, in which is recounted the highly characteristic combat between the various forces of wit. No. 70 (on the ballad of "Chevy Chase") might well have been completed by No. 74. The paper on "Detraction Among Bad Poets" (No. 253), which deprecates certain ill-natured strokes in Pope's "Essay on Criticism," should also have been squeezed in somehow. It seems equally a pity to leave out Nos. 416 and 417 ("On the Pleasures of the Imagination"), upon which No. 418 (which is included) somewhat depends. The text seems to be fairly accurate, although the punctuation is a compromise between the original and the modern. There are virtually no notes, even on the most learned or cleverly veiled allusions. Doubtless this is because Sir James does not feel the advantage of trying by skilful annotation to overcome the difficulties mentioned by Addison in his "Discourse on Ancient and Modern Learning":

> The first and most general advantage the ancients had over us was, that they knew all the secret history of a composure; what was the occasion of such a discourse or poem, whom such a sentence aimed at, what person lay disguised in such a character; for by this means they could see their author in a variety of lights, and receive several different entertainments from the same passage. We, on the contrary, can only please ourselves with the wit or good sense of a writer as it stands stripped of all those accidental circumstances that at first help to set it off; we have him but in a single view, and only discover such essential standing beauties as no time or years can possibly deface.

From the tone of his very pretty introduction, one suspects that Sir James would regard as little better than Tom Folio a person who seriously applied to Addison the editorial methods suggested by this quotation.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

FRENCH.

From the Princeton University Press comes a volume of representative, though not numerous, "Selections from the Works of Jean-Jacques Rousseau" (65 cents), chosen and edited by Prof. C. Gauss, and including the celebrated "Discours sur les Arts et les Sciences"; two letters to de Malesherbes that read like forerunners to the "Confessions"; and the fifth and best of the delightful "Rêveries du Promeneur Solitaire." A judicious introduction, in which account is taken of the most recent studies of Rousseau, and careful notes contribute to make of the volume a suggestive introductory handbook.

Three volumes have been recently added to the well-edited and attractive Oxford French Series by American Scholars: Montesquieu's "Lettres Persanes," edited by Prof. R. L. Cru; Sedaine's comedy, "Le Philosophe sans le savoir," edited by Prof. T. E. Oliver; and Balzac's "La Recherche de l'Absolu," edited by Prof. C. E. Young (60 cents each). The first two, the introduction and notes to which are particularly good, should be welcome especially to students of eighteenth-century French literature, and the third makes available for classes one of Balzac's less-known, though noteworthy, character-studies.

Among the latest accessions to Heath's Modern Language series are two books well adapted for beginners in French: "Fabliaux et Contes du Moyen Age," retold by L. Tarsot for juvenile readers and edited with notes and vocabulary by J. E. Mansion, of Edinburgh; and "Pierrille," a simple story of country life by the late Jules Claretie, edited with exercises, notes, and vocabulary by Prof. V. E. François (40 cents each).

For the same series, Prof. K. McKenzie has edited Molière's "Les Fourberies de Scapin" (35 cents). Besides the scholarly introduction, the notes, and the vocabulary, there is an interesting appendix containing a bibliography, passages from plays drawn upon by Molière for this work, and from modern plays that refer to Molière and the "Fourberies."

GERMAN.

"Aus deutschen Dörfern," by Stern and Arrowsmith (American Book Co.; 35 cts. net), is a companion volume to the former's well-known texts, "Geschichten vom Rhein" and "Geschichten von deutschen Städten." It consists of twenty short stories or sketches, of light contents and easy style, and may be profitably employed for translation at sight.

"Deutschland und die Deutschen," by Decker and Märkisch (American Book Co.; 60 cts. net), is another of the very numerous books which describe the imaginary visit of an American to Germany, and give opportunity for descriptions of German institutions, manners, and customs. The text, which is often in dialogue form, is interspersed with poems and enlivened by pictures. A successful effort has been made to render the style bright and full of "up-to-date" idioms, but it may be gravely questioned whether this quality can compensate for the essential thinness of all such texts compared with genuine German stories of literary value. The vocabulary and notes appear to be adequate.

"The German Language; Outlines of Its Development," by Prof. Tobias Diekhoff, of the University of Michigan (Oxford University Press; $1.25 net), is a somewhat comprehensive treatise which aims, on the one hand, at affording profitable private study for teachers of German who have not had the advantage of a systematic course in historical German grammar, and, on the other hand, endeavors to be sufficiently scholarly and scientific to furnish the basis for such a course in college or university. The author has used freely the monumental grammar of Wilmanns, and also, it is gratifying to notice, such works of American scholarship as those of Curme, Hempl, and others. The workmanship is careful and the results clearly and attractively presented.

F. W. Truscott and S. C. Smith's "Elementary German Composition" (American Book Co.; 50 cents net) is much less formidable than most books of the kind. Part I consists chiefly of unconnected sentences arranged in exercises devoted to drill in parts of speech, forms, and grammatical constructions. Part II, a series of brief narratives and expositions, is quite as simple in style, juvenile, but dignified. With a minimum of apparatus the editors seem to have supplied all necessary information.

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"A German Grammar," by Charles Harris (American Book Co.; $1 net), is indeed one of many, and is not the first work of the kind by this author; but it has an individuality and a prospect of usefulness. The design evidently was to provide a manual inclusive enough for ordinary purposes and suited to be read for instruction or consulted for information about details. The book is thoroughly well organized, interestingly written, and clear within the limits of brevity. This is not to say that sharper distinctions might not here and there have been made without stretching the limits. Illustrative sentences are all appropriate and for the most part are drawn without effort from recognizable literary sources.

It is perhaps enough that a book for beginners in German should be clear, correct, and so constructed as to lead the learner by sure stages to the point of ultimately possessing the fundamentals of grammar and a usable vocabulary. M. E. Manfred's "Ein praktischer Anfang" (Heath; $1.10 net) is such a book, adapted to teaching by the so-called direct method. It gives abundant opportunity for drill in connection with objects and actions belonging to the school, the home, and the city. The new tongue is thus made to seem a practical instrument of immediate applicability, and this is a great gain, however little interest may attach to the substance of the new expressions. On the other hand, much of the vocabulary involved is of little use, except for the purposes of the drill, and the acquisition of grammatical and, we suspect, verbal knowledge is slow in proportion to its "directness." It may be correspondingly firmer.

Frenssen's "Peter Moors Fahrt nach Südwest," abridged by about half in the edition of Herman Babson (Holt; 40 cents), affords a text of considerable interest and value to American students. The author's extensive vocabulary seems to be correctly and adequately interpreted in the glossary, and the geography and history of the colony are well presented in a map and the introduction. The editor's notes cannot be so unreservedly approved. They are marred by misprints, they are somewhat lacking in precision, and here and there they are misleading, though nowhere seriously. Attention is properly called to the qualities of Frenssen's style.

J. T. Hatfield's "Shorter German Poems" (Heath; 75 cents) is a collection of sixty-eight pieces which certainly belong among the best in the language. Ten are accompanied by music. The editorial work is commendably unobtrusive. It is curious, however, that young students should be assured that Schiller's "Mädchen aus der Fremde" is "doubtless" a symbol of Poetry, and should be encouraged to translate *weiss Bescheid* by "is well posted."

Wildenbruch's story "Das edle Blut" is written in a rather morbid spirit, but it has dramatic power, and its military atmosphere has caused it to find favor with American youth. The edition by A. K. Hardy (Holt; 30 cts.) is very workmanlike, containing, for example, exercises that are both translatable and readable—a rare combination.

Hans Arnold's "Menne im Seebad," an entertaining story about a pet dog, makes in the edition by May Thomas (Heath; 30 cents net) a textbook well suited for use in school. The editor failed to inform her readers that *blinder Passagier* is equivalent to "dead-head."

SWEDISH.

A. Louis Elmquest's "Elementary Swedish Grammar" (Chicago: Engberg-Holmberg Publishing Co.) is the best Swedish grammar of its kind in English. The account of the facts of grammar is as accurate and scientific as we should expect a book written largely at Upsala to be; yet it remains simple and thoroughly practical for an American beginner in a Scandinavian language. Of particular value is the attention which the author gives to spoken Swedish and the perplexing differences between it and the written language, or the so-called higher style. The exercises, unfortunately, are not so good as the grammar. The sentences for translation are of the conventionally disconnected, stupid sort. No students can summon much interest in translating into Swedish "Strawberries are red. Botanists like flowers and trees. The children's eyes are brown."

DANISH.

Johannes Steenstrup's "Vore Folkeviser fra Middelalderen" has been translated by Prof. Edward G. Cox, under the title of "The Mediæval Popular Ballad" (Ginn; $1.75 net). In this work, written a quarter of a century ago, the author attempts to disengage the unspoiled Danish ballad of the Middle Ages from the corruptions which it has suffered in transmission and from the spurious product of later periods which has been fellowed with it in the collections. Such matters as narrative in the first person, bombast lines like "This I say to you in sooth," ethical sententiousness, love of fatherland, the elaborate "kennings" of the older literature, are not characteristic of the ballads which the dancing company sang under the leadership of their "forespeaker"; they are the marks of the corrupting hand. Every genuine ballad had its refrain, though a few have lost them. A wealth of learning goes to the illustration of these and similar propositions. The text is not always happily idiomatic, but the Englishing of the scraps of Danish balladry leads one to wish that the translator would try his hand at some renderings on a larger scale.

ITALIAN.

It is a pleasure to commend Mr. Orlo Williams's "Giosue Carducci," a short study written for Constable's series of Modern Biographies. The external events of Carducci's career were few; he lived in his work as poet, essayist, and teacher. Rightly enough, therefore, criticism dominates biography throughout this sketch. Mr. Williams distinguishes clearly the successive phases of Carducci's literary development, and has for each of them comment that is fresh and just. He does not hesitate to rule adversely, as in the remark that Carducci "too often enumerates the causes of his emotion, without communicating the emotion itself"; but his discreet appreciation is the more effective for such tempering. The final estimate is simple and true: "His verse is less akin to music or painting than to the art of sculpture; it has the same limitations, aims at the same effects, reaches the same calm perfection." The illustrative passages, drawn from Carducci's prose and verse alike, are very well chosen. Several, taken from the recently published "Lettere," are new to English readers. There are a few errors in statement and in translation. The "Giunta alla derrata" was in press before Carducci went to San Miniato. Carducci's work on the Latin poems of Ariosto is an essay, not an edition. The cattle of the "Amici della valle tiberina" did not graze "in the wake of sturdy veterans," but "on the ramparts of bygone tyrants." Mr. Frank Sewall's volume of translations should have been mentioned in the bibliography.

SPANISH.

That Imaginative Gentleman Don Quijote de la Mancha. By Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra. Translated into English by Robinson Smith. Second Edition with a new Life of Cervantes, Notes, and Appendices. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 net.

The *Nation* of January 19, 1911, reviewed at length a new translation of "Don Quixote" by Robinson Smith. The reviewer called attention to the entire absence of notes, the excessive use of slang, and certain incorrect translations. After an interval of three years Mr. Smith has issued a second edition with notable additions.

The extensive omissions of the first edition, as to prefatory matter, the two novels, and some of the episodes, have not been repaired; indeed, in the Life of Cervantes (p. xxxv), Mr. Smith makes the extravagant statement that the introduction of the novels was "the one fatal mistake of his life." The misprints mentioned in the *Nation's* review have been corrected, and some of the slang has been changed, as (p. 23), "slating a peasant neighbor of his," is replaced by, "fixing upon"; but (p. 599) we still find "slating him for that post." The favorite "scath" is changed to "wrong" (p. 127), and "buttons" corrected to "stopples" (p. 222). Some of the colloquial expressions have been modified, so "shan't" becomes "shall not" (p. 45); but the unfortunate style, erring by excessive familiarity, has been retained in the main, as well as many positive mistakes, such as "catholic" in the sense of "sound" (pp. 354, 631, 652), and "idiot," "idiocy," and "idiotic pranks" are used to translate "loco" and "locuras" (pp. 172, 178, 352, 382). Three times the word "missal" is used for "missive" (pp. 176, 206, and note); and "Ensayo" in the title of Gallardo's work (p. lx), is translated "Rehearsal"; it does mean "rehearsal," but in the title in question it is of course "Attempt at a Spanish Library of Rare and Curious Books." We still have (p. 178) "throw a fit or two" for "hacer locuras," and, on the same page, "kicked his hands in the air" for "dió dos zapatetas en el aire," "zapateta" being a slap with the hand on the sole of the foot, as is done by the Tyrolese *Schuhplatteltänzer,* we presume. Mr. Smith's own writing shows signs of haste and carelessness, as where (p. xxxvii) he says of the appearance of Don Quixote, "Its reception was immediate," and (p. xli) in describing Cervantes, "he looks the vicissitudes that his life has been."

But leaving minor details, we come to the new matter of the second edition. The *Nation* complained that there were no notes. Mr. Smith has now printed with the new edition one thousand and seven notes, designed not so much to explain the text as to corroborate the translator's theory of Cervantes's excessive indebtedness to his predecessors and contemporaries. The faintest resemblance between two situations or expressions is enough to establish the fact of Cervantes's borrow-

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ing. In Mr. Smith's eyes "Don Quixote" seems to be little more than a gigantic *cento*, and he says (p. liv), "one of the delights in the study of Don Quijote is meeting with so much else that is admirable in the Spanish literature of the century before." In his Preface Mr. Smith says he endeavors to establish certain new facts regarding the book and its author. These new facts are: that Cervantes travestied all the books of his period as well as of the past; that the first part was written at Valladolid in 1603; that Cervantes was inspired by the second as well as by the first part of Aleman's "Guzman de Alfarache"; that the loss and finding of Dapple in the second edition are from the pen of Cervantes; that the three ass-colts in Chapter XXV of the First Part are a travesty on the three out of the five princes of Savoy who came to visit Philip III at the time Cervantes was writing; that Cervantes did not write a word of his second part of "Don Quixote" until the false second part appeared early in 1614; that new facts tend to show that Luis de Aliaga, Philip III's confessor, was the author of the false continuation; that Cervantes made use of its plot, incidents, and expressions; that the true second part was finished nearly, if not quite, by the end of the year 1614 at Madrid.

These facts are not new. The ass-colts were fathered, if we may be allowed the expression, by Rawdon Brown in the *Athenæum*, April 12, 1873; the loss and finding of Dapple in the second edition have long been attributed to Cervantes's pen; we have known ever since 1897 that the first part of "Don Quixote" was in print before May 26, 1604 (if Document 38 in Perez Pastor's "Documentos Cervantinos," Madrid, 1897, is not, as many scholars believe, dated a year too early), and known to Lope de Vega, among others, on August 12, 1604. Mr. Smith gives no new facts to prove the authorship of Luis de Aliaga, to whom the false second part has been attributed by various writers ever since 1851. Why Cervantes should have waited until the fifty-ninth chapter of his second part to allude openly to the false second part when, according to Mr. Smith, he had been using it from the beginning is not explained. Avellaneda's book was approved April 18, 1614, and licensed to print and sell in the archbishopric of Tarragona July 4, 1614; Cervantes in the Prologue to his "Exemplary Novels," published in 1613, but finished and approved July 9, and August 8, 1612, clearly expressed his intention of continuing his "Don Quixote." Mr. Smith says that Avellaneda's book came into Cervantes's hands "towards the end of 1613, and he at once announced that his own true second part would shortly be ready. As yet he had not written a word of it, and for a man already bending with age and the dropsy, shuffling in his gait, it was not a little to promise." Elsewhere (p. iv) Mr. Smith says that each part of the "Don Quixote" was written at high speed, frequently two chapters a week, and (p. xlii) that Cervantes "wrote with no division into paragraphs." Surely, Mr. Smith should know that the present system of paragraphing is of comparatively recent date. It is impossible to argue with an author who makes such positive statements, which are really based on the merest conjecture. Mr. Smith is a man of wide reading and has bestowed much study on his favorite author, but it is to be regretted that he has not been restrained by better taste and sounder literary criticism. Many curious things have been written about "Don Quixote," but none is stranger than Mr. Smith's comparison of his method of study with the problem of the higher criticism of the New Testament, to which he devotes pp. lv, lvi, of his Life of Cervantes.

The life of Cervantes referred to above has been issued by the same publishers as a separate work under the title "The Life of Cervantes," with a frontispiece representing the house in Valladolid, where Mr. Smith asserts that Cervantes wrote the first part of "Don Quixote" in the year 1603. Unfortunately for this assertion, Mr. Fitzmaurice Kelly, in his "Memoir" (Oxford, 1913, p. 117, note 1) shows that the house in question was still building in August, 1604.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

A useful addition to the list of textbooks available for high-school teachers of civics is A. M. Stickles's "Elements of Government" (American Book Co.; $1), which lays special stress upon the historical development of American institutions. No matter what topic the author considers, he never fails to explain, in a concise and lucid way, just how the thing started and grew and expanded. The book is sensible in arrangement, judicious in its statements, and written in language that any high-school boy can understand. Each chapter has suggestions for further study, and some test questions and topics for debate, which give evidence of having been thought out with care and patience. Altogether too much space, however, has been given to a clause-by-clause commentary on the national Constitution; State government is disposed of in about thirty pages, and the highly important field of city government gets even less. This shows a faulty sense of proportion, and does not square with present-day methods of teaching civil government in the best secondary schools.

A. G. Clarke has attempted a bold enterprise in his "Text-Book on National Economy for Use in Schools" (P. S. King & Son; 3s. 6d.). In the compass of a hundred pages he seeks to cover not merely economics, but also the elements of politics and law, and such technical questions as education, health, and "the position of one nation among others." The author, who was formerly assistant master at the Royal Naval College, Osborne, believes that the study of economics should turn out men of action, and sets his students a vigorous example. He begins with a rush, in the middle of his subject; he darts, without resting, from one complex subject to another; he closes with a bibliography in which the place of honor is given to books which will impart "some knowledge of the world, and of broad human ideals," such as Kipling's "Kim" and Stevenson's "Across the Plains." "A knowledge of Wagner's opera 'The Meistersingers' may be of value in forming judgments," is a parenthetical remark in the bibliography. The book is a review of the questions of the day in England, written from the standpoint of social toryism and including occasional references to the principles of economics. It may stimulate schoolboys to action, but it promises little in the way of guidance to their thought.

If "A Course in Citizenship," by Ella Lyman Cabot and others (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25 net), leaves an impression of heaviness, this is because the volume has been planned to supply material for each of the ten months of each of the eight grades below the high school. Spread over so long a time, the selections of prose and verse that form a large part of the book would be apt to prove the reverse of dull. The chapters present an ever-widening vista for the pupil, from the home, the school and playground, and the neighborhood, to the nation and the world. The variety of material gathered may be suggested by the titles, "The Discontented Squirrel," "In a London Square," and "The Pan-American Union." The ethical purpose of the collection is evident, but as in using it everything depends upon the teacher, we need not quarrel with what in cold type comes to seem over-formal. To a multitude of teachers, the most valuable sections of the text will be those headed Suggestions for Morning Talks.

The purpose of Lieut.-Col. H. H. Holt's "Introduction to the Study of Government" (Macmillan; $2 net) is to place before students a concise statement of the nature, organization, and operations of government in various countries. The author is a professor in the United States Military Academy at West Point, and his volume is frankly a textbook, prepared as an aid to his own teaching. It differs from the ordinary textbook, however, in some important respects. The comparative method, for example, is strictly adhered to throughout. Every feature of American government is set in analogy or contrast to its prototype elsewhere. Other writers have followed this plan to some extent, but none so unswervingly as Lieut.-Col. Holt has done. To each chapter, moreover, the author has appended documentary data, statistical tables, or illustrative citations to reinforce the arguments outlined in his text. These excerpts have been judiciously selected and add greatly to the usefulness of the book. Many teachers of political science in small colleges will doubtless find in this combination of source book and text a convenient basis of discussion in the class. The general arrangement of topics is good; the facts are stated accurately; opinions are expressed with caution, and the style is distinctly better than that of most elementary textbooks.

HISTORY.

ANCIENT.

Mattingly's "Outlines of Ancient History" (Cambridge University Press; Putnam) is not damned by being dull. Ploetz's Epitome is also dull, but it is none the less a useful work. It is difficult for a well-proportioned outline to be interesting. An outline need not be written by a man who, conscious of all he omits and of the evidences for what he inserts, registers a thoughtful judgment in every sentence. Otherwise popularizers would have nothing to do, and this book would never have appeared. For its author has no special competence except in certain parts of his subject, and particularly in the field of his Cambridge Prize Essay on the "Imperial Civil Service of Rome." This he modestly admits in the Preface and subsequently proves. Our quarrel with the book is that it is not scrupulously accurate. On page 77 the *thetes* are said to have been allowed to take part in the meetings of Solon's Council: on page 78 the Council is said to have been constituted from "the first three classes." Both statements cannot be true. Gelon of Syracuse

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was not a "son" of Hippocrates of Gela (page 92). What is said of the Lydian League on page 99 is true of the Lycian. "The general principle" of the Peace of Nicias (page 150) is stated diametrically wrong. What went to Sicily on the first Athenian expedition was not "100 ships carrying 5,000 hoplites" (page 158), but 134 triremes carrying 5,100 hoplites. No Athenian could be called "Diocleidas" (page 159). "In 387 Thrasybulus sailed," etc. (page 183), contrasts awkwardly with the announcement made five lines farther down: "in 388 Thrasybulus died, too." "In 362 Epaminondas . . . found the Spartans and their allies awaiting him near Tegea" (page 201) should read: "when Epaminondas reached Tegea the forces of the Spartans and their allies had not yet taken the field." The statement on page 233, "Ptolemy II quarrelled with his wife Arsinoe, and she left him and fled to Samothrace," indicates a serious confusion of persons; the statement on page 237, "In Macedon and the East the king was absolute ruler," indicates a serious confusion of constitutions, and what is said of the Achæan League on page 244 confirms the impression that constitutions are not the author's strong point. Some of these errors are due to absent-minded proofreading and lapses of memory, but others are due to careless composition and the lack of a thorough knowledge of the subject.

"Readings in Greek History," from Homer to the battle of Chæronea, by I. C. Thallon (Ginn; $2), is a source book for the study of the history of this period. The practice of sending the student of history to the sources for the verification of our knowledge cannot be too highly commended, especially where, as in the case of Greek history, he will thus be brought into contact with the great masters of Greek literature in all its fields. For, as is shown in the selections here given, Greek history is inextricably interwoven with Greek literature. It is natural to regard Homer as our chief source for the Homeric age, but in the chapter on the expansion of Greece Archilochus, Anacreon, Callinus, Hesiod, and Pindar supplement Herodotus and Thucydides. In the chapter on the rise of Macedon, Demosthenes and Isocrates, Æschines and Lycurgus interpret Diodorus. Æschylus, of course, is most important for the Persian wars, while Pindar and Simonides illustrate the wars among the western Greeks. The choice of selections is careful and judicious, the arrangement clear and well-defined. The translations of the inscriptions and the minor pieces have been made by the compiler and are good. In the case of the great authors, the best translations have naturally been employed. Such a book ought to find a wide use among students of Greek literature as well as those of Ancient History.

It is no secret that a new kind of textbook on ancient history has been demanded by secondary teachers ever since the subject came to be taken by large numbers of pupils who lack the atmosphere that used to be got from the study of Greek and Latin, and was moved from one of the last to one of the first years of high-school programmes. R. L. Ashley's "Ancient Civilization" (Macmillan; $1.20 net) is the latest attempt to meet this demand. The author has already tried his hand with some success on an "American History" and an "American Government." This book he offers as a text primarily for a half-year course in ancient history "or for a year's work with sufficient use of the references." The needed economies are made by specializing on social history and reducing the narrative history to a minimum. This is nothing very new or very good. Indeed, the author has been nowhere more original than in the title of his book, which deserves commendation for its sincerity, unless it be in the title of his frontispiece—the most common photograph of the Acropolis—which is called a restoration by D'Ooge. We think that the maker of the ideal textbook so keenly desired by teachers of ancient history will have to be much more audacious in selecting and blending his materials than Mr. Ashley has been or could be, and that he will have to reckon with the boy's interest in a good story as well as with his need for atmosphere. Too much atmosphere produces fog. What we have before us is a book brimful of sane generalizations stated with the utmost simplicity. It contains what the teacher rather than the textbook should furnish. It could hardly have been written by a poor teacher.

MODERN.

Alice M. Atkinson's "Introduction to American History" (Ginn; 75 cents) is, for the most part, a sketch of the history of England for sixth-grade pupils, digressing rather abruptly, when the fifteenth century approaches, for an account of Portuguese and Spanish discoveries and explorations, the conquest of Mexico and Peru, and the exploits of English seamen. The material in the same author's "European Beginnings of American History" has been freely drawn upon. There is the usual abundant provision of pictures, nearly all of them, fortunately, of real historical value.

Were it not for the indisputable evidence of widespread incompetency among teachers of history in schools which recent investigations have shown, there would be difficulty in believing that so elementary a manual as John W. Wayland's "How to Teach American History" (Macmillan; $1.10 net) could be needed anywhere. Professor Wayland knows his audience, however, and in simple, direct, and kindly language offers exactly the sort of pedagogical instruction that the untrained and inexperienced teacher needs. The suggestions are practical and are adapted to both elementary and secondary schools. Teachers who feel constrained to emphasize the victories of peace rather than those of war, or who like to point a moral as well as to adorn a tale, will also find the book helpful. The solid character of some of the lists of reference books may help to remind the teacher that a prime requisite of good teaching is thorough knowledge of the subject.

In "The Partition of Europe, a Textbook of European History, 1715-1815" (Oxford University Press; $1.10), Philip Guedalla outlines in a precise, formal, and accurate fashion the salient facts of political and diplomatic history during the century which closed with Waterloo. The crowded narrative of bare events, suggestive of printed lecture notes for cramming, is somewhat relieved by many bright and striking phrases. His account is compressed into three hundred small pages, bisected by the year 1789.

Of a much more advanced character is "The Revolutionary Period in Europe, 1763-1815" (Century Co.; $2.50 net), a new volume in the Century Historical series for college classes which Professor Burr is editing. The author, Prof. H. E. Bourne, presents the results of recent scholarship with a good deal of freshness and originality as far as the arrangement and choice of the subject-matter is concerned. Instead of starting with 1789, or even with conditions in France on the eve of the Revolution, he gives a survey of government, public opinion, and enlightened despotism in other European countries. He even finds room for a chapter on the Industrial Revolution in England. In dealing with the French Revolution he departs somewhat from strict chronology, in order to secure more unity and coherence by topical treatment. In the Napoleonic period he wisely refrains from too much military detail, in order that he may describe more at length the great social and economic changes through which Europe was passing. He adds a helpful bibliography. But his style is not of a sort to stir the heart or fire the imagination.

A good history of French constitutional law, with an introduction on the origin and nature of the state, is one of the latest volumes in the excellent Continental Legal History series (Little, Brown; $4.50 net). In this "History of French Public Law" Jean Brissaud consolidates in a very clear and systematic way the results of the researches of Viollet, Flach, Luchaire, Esmein, Fustel de Coulanges, and other scholars. He shows in successive periods the development of French institutions and classes of society from the earliest barbarian invasions to the beginning of the nineteenth century. He follows closely the best scientific historical method, and seeks to give the underlying social, economic, and political causes of all legal growth. With his broad knowledge of the history of other countries, he is able to make helpful interpretations of French institutions in the light of those of England, Germany, Sweden, and other countries. By this comparative method he makes one realize that no great modern state is altogether unique, arising on its own territory independently of and uninfluenced by its neighbors. The English translation by Prof. James W. Garner is generally accurate, but lacks uniformity in the matter of proper names. There is a grotesque inconsistency in putting "Eusèbe," "Paul le Diacre," "Origène," etc., from Latin into French, and then taking "Abbe Gregory," "the great Arnold" [Arnauld], etc., out of French into English, to say nothing of such an absurd hybrid as "Hippol., of Lapide" (p. 332). Unfortunately, Professor Brissaud died in 1904, and the editors of the translation have made no attempt to bring his bibliography and footnotes up to date.

The coöperative method of writing general history by specialists is no longer confined to learned publications in many volumes. It has reached the school textbook. In the "Outlines of European History," Part I (Ginn; $1.50), Prof. James Henry Breasted packs within three hundred pages an extraordinary amount of most interesting information in regard to earliest man, the Orient, Greece, and Rome; and Prof. James Harvey Robinson, within four hundred pages, covers the significant conditions and institutions in European history from the break-up of the Roman Empire down to the opening of the eighteenth century. Both authors have introduced a large number of admirable sketch illustrations, and

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even a few (less successful) colored plates. This illustrative material will not only arouse a genuine interest on the part of the pupil, but itself affords good subject-matter for study. Each chapter is divided into topical sections which form really discussable class-room topics, and are not mere fragments of history chopped off chronologically. Altogether the book looks very teachable. It is a significant indication of the changed emphasis in historical teaching, of which Professor Robinson has been a protagonist, that, while Part I, like the Pyramids, looks down on more than forty centuries, Part II is to be restricted to the mere two hundred years which have ushered in the conditions under which we are going to be living to-morrow morning. Together, the two volumes are designed to meet what the authors believe to be a growing demand for a two-year course in European history in the high school. The most fresh and interesting parts of this volume are the first hundred pages, in which Professor Breasted describes vividly and delightfully the outstanding features of Egyptian and other pre-Grecian civilizations. They are accorded nearly as much space as Greece itself and considerably more than Rome. Professor Breasted makes a novel and plausible suggestion as to the origin of our word "Bible": the Greeks called Egyptian papyrus "byblos" because by the twelfth century B. C. it was being imported from the Phœnician city of Byblos, "as we call stuff from Damascus 'damask,' and from Calcutta 'calico'" (p. 140). Professor Breasted's "Calcutta," however, is a *lapsus calami* for "Calicut," a thousand miles away on the other shore of the Indian Peninsula. Professor Robinson's part of the volume will be familiar to students of history, as nine-tenths of it is lifted bodily by paragraphs from his well-known "Introduction to the History of Western Europe." To be sure, the chapter headings are frequently changed; the longer paragraphs are broken up into topical sections; the phraseology is slightly improved here and there; some new pages on Mohammedanism are introduced; a great many new illustrations are added; and some paragraphs are omitted. Otherwise his part is the old book in new form.

PHILOSOPHY.

PSYCHOLOGY.

A History of Psychology. By Otto Klemm. Authorized Translation, with Annotations by Emil Carl Wilm and Rudolf Pintner. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 net.

In the treatise which created, according to a common opinion, the science of psychology, Aristotle defined as his aim the investigation of the nature and essence of the soul, and also of its "accidents," or varied manifestations, which, as he conceived, threw important light on the essence. So thoroughly did he do his work that enthusiastic admirers have declared that he had no predecessors and has only had imitators. There were two sides to his inquiry, an empirical and a philosophical: the former closely connected with his biological conception of the soul as, in some sense, the ideal side of the living body, whence, *e. g.*, an emotion, as he explains, is to be defined not merely in logical terms, but also realistically as a bodily perturbation; the latter appearing perhaps most clearly in his conception of active reason as pure energy, essentially characteristic of the human soul, but at the same time relating it to what is fundamental and ultimate in the universe.

It is a far cry from Aristotle to Klemm. In the picture of contemporary psychology sketched for us by the German writer, we find a purely empirical science, whose subject-matter is not the soul, but something called "contents of consciousness"—a term unknown to Aristotle—and whose aim is to resolve these contents into their elements and to investigate their nature and relations by methods partly borrowed from and altogether akin to those of the experimental, physical, and other natural sciences. As to its relation to philosophy, the contention that it is itself the ultimate source and authority has, we are told, been refuted, but the hope is held out that reflection on its own hypothetical principles may in the future open up vistas of far-reaching theoretical importance. At present, however, the relation seems indeterminate. Looking closer, we find that, apart from the general repudiation of "metaphysics" and the determination to be "empirical," there is little or no agreement among modern psychologists on fundamental questions relating to the science: this, also, is part of the picture; indeed, the confusion seems to be even greater than that represented by our author, for it is notorious that the very subject-matter of the science is in dispute, some, *e. g.*, rejecting the doctrine of "contents" and "elements" as altogether misleading, while others dismiss even "consciousness" and find the proper subject of study to be objectively observable "behavior."

To the impartial onlooker the situation may appear scandalous, but as undoubtedly many advances are being made in detail, others may see in these disputes evidence of exuberant vitality; they at any rate go far to justify the remark of a contemporary cited at the beginning of the present volume, that psychology has had a long past, but a brief history—one is tempted to say that it has had no history, properly speaking, at all. Meanwhile there are rumors even of a "return of the soul." It is not altogether unthinkable that we shall some day complete the circle and go back to Aristotle to relearn, as Hegel suggested, the lesson and to reinterpret the meaning of his books.

It is mainly with questions of principle that Klemm's book has to do, and the emphasis is on modern discussions and, more particularly, on movements connected with the recent state of psychology in Germany. The report of discussions in the ancient and mediæval world and in the period of the Renaissance is inadequate and shows little familiarity with the sources at first hand. Who, for example, acquainted with the "Parva naturalia" of Aristotle, would think of contrasting the variety of little tracts collected under that title with the "De Anima" by representing them as treating of the dispositional basis of the mental life as over against its phenomenology (p. 89)? Much, doubtless, concerning the mental life has been learned during the past two hundred and fifty years; extraordinarily much also of the earlier teaching has been forgotten.

In the "Problemata," which form an extensive part of the body of writings that have come down to us under the name of Aristotle, we have a list of the symptoms of fear—cold and shivering, pallor of countenance, trembling of the body, of the hands, of the lower lip, trembling and shrilling of the voice, thirst, disturbed action of the heart, drying up of the saliva, paralysis of the tongue, abnormal secretions of the bile, puckering of the skin both generally and in the scrotum, loosening and discharge of the bowels and bladder, and several more; indeed, the list could hardly be surpassed by a modern writer. It seems, therefore, an exaggeration to say, as our author does (p. 193), that we owe the first thoroughgoing psychological description of affective experiences to Augustine. Besides, what are we to say of Plato's description of the passionate soul in the "Phædrus," Aristotle's discussion of the emotions in the "Rhetoric," and especially the very acute treatment of the affective life by Plotinus (Enn. III, 6), not to mention earlier and later Stoics? The fact is that Augustine has no systematic treatment of the passions at all, and while he undoubtedly does portray very vividly certain of the religious emotions, his chief contribution to theory was the finding of the root of emotion in will and the reduction of all its manifestations to the one principle of love.

Some of Klemm's interpretations of modern writers are not more successful. It is wrong, for instance, to represent Descartes as teaching that "all conscious contents consist in cognitive processes" (p. 170; *Denkvorgänge* in the original); for though he uses the word *penser*, he defines "a thing that thinks" (*Méd.* II) not only as one that doubts, conceives, judges, etc., but also as one that wills and does not will and that feels (*sent*). The term, therefore, means for him about the same as "being conscious." Nor is it an altogether happy exposition which ascribes to Hume the derivation of "impressions of introspection" for the most part from our "ideas" (p. 77), and makes him reject the idea of soul-substance "on the ground that substance always presupposed the spatial connection of the contents of consciousness (always the contents of consciousness!) with something extended or unextended" (p. 170). And it is to say the least misleading to represent Berkeley as denying all spatial character to color (p. 161).

As to the selection and distribution of the matter in a history of this sort there is always room for difference of opinion. In the opinion of the present writer too much space has been given to movements which have attempted to apply mathematics to psychology, the net upshot of which has been so largely negative and which have had comparatively little influence outside of Germany, and too little to those movements which have sought to interpret the phenomena from the genetic point of view and to represent mental development as a systematic and constructive synthesis. Nevertheless, the author, within the limits prescribed, has given the student a useful survey of the general tendencies of psychology, of the development of its fundamental concepts and of the history of some of its most important theories, and for this the student should be grateful.

The translators have done their part fairly well, but leave much to be desired. The following may serve as specimens for correction among many that have been noted. P. 6, l. 5: "chapter," where the reference is to the whole third Part (*Abschnitt*). P. 15, mid.: "The soul, however, is not affected by these physical theories" (of Empedocles), as a translation of "wird in diesen Zusammenhang seiner physikalischen Theorien nicht einbezogen." P. 39: the citation of a work by Maupertuis under a German title. P. 91, end:

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"The law of immediate reproduction"; it should be "mediate." P. 98: the omission of the date of Maass's "Versuch" (1792) and the translation of *nebeneinanderhält* in his definition of imagination by "compares." P. 103: "Psychology was not directly *influenced* by the ideas of Romanticism," where the translation of *befruchtet* introduces a contradiction with the statement lower down that at the time of Herbart psychology was completely absorbed (*war aufgegangen*) in the ideas of Romanticism. Similarly (p. 361, l. 5) we are told that the conception of freedom was *superseded* in the Middle Ages by controversies as to the primacy of the will or of the intellect; but (p. 363) we find the doctrines of the freedom of the will in that period expounded. The contradiction would be avoided by a correct rendering of *hintertritt*. P. 113, l. 3, makes it appear that Descartes's assertion that animals were soulless automata was a conception popular at the time, whereas the original makes the correct statement that Descartes compared animals to the automata that were then so popular. P. 139: "The earlier writings of Edwards, Hickok, and Porter in the nineteenth century," suggests a date for Edwards which a more careful attention to the text, as well as to the facts, would have avoided. P. 190: *Anzeichen für den Beginn* is not "sign *for* the rise," but indication *of* a beginning. P. 194 (of Eckhart): *versenkte sich* is not "lapsed"; nor (p. 295, l.6) are *Grundgegensätze* "principles of opposition"; nor (p. 297) do "imaging" and "images" suitably render *vorstellend* and *Vorstellung;* nor (p. 277, and p. 251) does "more than noticeable" correctly express the (elsewhere rightly rendered) technical *übermerklich.*

The bibliography is naturally brief; a few titles have been added by the translators. There is no mention of Harms, "Philosophie in ihrer Geschichte, I. Psychologie" (Berlin, 1878), or of the more important work of Janet and Séailles, "History of the Problems of Philosophy, I. Psychology" (Eng. tr., London, 1902). Harms treats psychology as a branch of philosophy, Janet and Séailles recognize it as an empirical science.

ETHICS.

Professor De Laguna has published an "Introduction to the Science of Ethics" (Macmillan; $1.75 net), which embodies much that is most modern in ethical discussion. Its three Parts treat, respectively, of "The Field of Ethics," "The Classical Schools" (this being a brief history of moral philosophy), and "The Evolutionary Theory of Moral Values." The point of view is emphatically "objective" (in one of the many meanings of that word); morality is studied as an historical and psychological phenomenon—an actuality rather than an ideal. The old-fashioned question, "What is the principle of obligation? What is the basis of my duty?" is not neglected, but is taken up as an interesting and somewhat curious problem of former generations. Various historical solutions of the problem are described and the arguments *pro* and *con* are considered, the reader's final impression being that some say one thing and some another, and that on the whole the question is hardly worth discussing. The best thing in the book is the treatment of the evolution of values in Part III, which contains much sound social psychology. As an "introduction to the science of ethics," however, the book as a whole will be a disappointment to all but very "up to date" readers. Although four pages before the end the author discloses the fact (which up to that point he has kept a profound secret) that he is an *energist,* the reader will gather from the whole trend of the discussion that ethics is quite on a basis with æsthetics or with the fashion; and that the law, Thou shalt not kill, is of the same general sort as the law, Thou shalt not wear tan shoes with evening dress. To many the book will seem both futile and superficial; and this not because of any lack of ability on the part of the scholarly author, but because the point of view of the modern school of moralists to which he belongs makes ethics itself both superficial and futile.

ARCHÆOLOGY.

Handbook of the Cesnola Collection of Antiquities from Cyprus in the Metropolitan Museum of Art. By John L. Myres. New York: The Metropolitan Museum of Art, 1914.

Few collections have had so adventurous a career as the Cesnola Collection of Cypriote Antiquities in the Metropolitan Museum. When General Luigi Palma di Cesnola began his excavations in Cyprus in 1865, archæological research was somewhat of a novelty. Schliemann, for instance, did not begin his epoch-making discoveries in Troy until 1872. The spectacular results obtained by Cesnola in the sanctuaries and tombs of Cyprus naturally aroused the greatest interest. His collection became famous even before it left the island. How he managed to export it before the very eyes of a Turkish man-of-war when its exportation had been strictly forbidden by the Turkish Government makes a story of truly Oriental flavor. Its purchase was considered by most of the leading museums in Europe; finally America obtained it, and it became one of the first acquisitions of importance made by the newly formed Metropolitan Museum, then in Fourteenth Street. After its installation came the well-known controversy over its integrity waged with considerable heat between General Cesnola and his assailants. Cesnola was vindicated, but an unpleasant notoriety remained attached to the collection for some years. In the meanwhile, as time passed and archæological knowledge steadily advanced, the intricate art of Cyprus was becoming better understood, and the publications of the Cesnola Collection, made by Cesnola and other writers, were felt to be no longer adequate. In 1909, therefore, the Museum asked Prof. J. L. Myres, of Oxford, one of the greatest living authorities on Cypriote art, to come to New York to rearrange the collection in the light of recent discoveries and write a handbook on the subject. For some years the public has enjoyed the benefit of this rearrangement, which was completed in 1910. Professor Myres's handbook of the collection has now appeared, and with it may be announced what would seem to be the final stage in the history of this collection. It is now exhibited and published in such a way as to present to the public a clear picture of the development of Cypriote art in all its various branches.

It is one of the triumphs of modern scientific research to have brought order into the confused opinions current on the art of Cyprus. We need only compare the chapter "On the Pottery of Cyprus," contributed by Dr. A. S. Murray, of the British Museum, to Cesnola's "Cyprus," published in 1877, with Professor Myres's classification of Cypriote pottery, to appreciate the difference which forty years have made in our knowledge. Instead of the theory that "in this enchanted island almost all styles of pottery were in use concurrently at almost all periods," to quote Professor Myres's words, we have now a classification of about twenty different fabrics, carefully grouped chronologically, starting from the Early Bronze Age and coming down to the Roman period. The sculpture, the bronzes, the terracottas, the jewelry, the inscriptions, and the glass are treated in a similar manner in the handbook; and, what helps greatly our understanding of the material, Professor Myres contributes to each section a preliminary note dealing with each subject in general.

Another feature on which Professor Myres lays stress, and the importance of which is now coming to be generally understood, is the influence of historical events on art. Cyprus is certainly a case in point, as is borne out in Professor Myres's interesting chapter Ancient Cyprus in History and Culture. The only way to understand the varied styles of her sculpture, for instance, is to know her history. Cypriote artists seem to have been peculiarly sensitive to outside influences, and they reflect the history of their country to a remarkable degree. Assyria, Egypt, Persia, Greece, and Rome, each in turn left her mark on the art of Cyprus. But the Cypriote artist, always imitative and rarely endowed with great artistic feeling, still had a strong individuality of his own. Though we cannot trace in his art that organic development which more independent arts show, there is nevertheless a certain quality in it which we immediately recognize as "Cypriote." The Cypriote artist was not merely a copyist; he had a definite contribution of his own to make. Moreover, he had at times a curiously attractive whimsical sense, which is best manifested in the fantastic shapes and decorations of some of his pottery. Cypriote vases, in fact, are full of surprises, and make a fascinating study for any one interested in form and design.

Professor Myres's book, though called a hand-book, is much more comprehensive than the title might suggest. It does not indeed give detailed treatment of every object when this forms part of a group, but whenever an object has individual importance it has been described separately, sometimes at considerable length. Considering the nature of the material, separate descriptions in every case would certainly have led to unbearable repetition; and the plan of treating the objects sometimes in groups and sometimes individually is admirably suited to the collection. The book is well illustrated, the pictures, though often small, being sharp and clear; and references are given throughout to Cesnola's Atlas and other publications.

No attempt has been made to give detailed provenances, as it was evidently felt that this could not be done with any degree of accuracy. Professor Myres puts the situation as follows: "After full consideration of all available evidence as to the circumstances of discovery, it has seemed best to treat each object in the Type Collections as an independent example of the art of Cyprus, and to base the new arrangement solely on considerations of workmanship and style. Thus arranged, the collection constitutes a series of the principal forms of pottery, sculpture, and other works of Cypriote art and industry,

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which is certainly the largest of its kind, and also the most varied in all but a few departments."

This brings us to the much-discussed subject of the value of Cesnola's work in Cyprus from a scientific point of view. With this Professor Myres deals in the fair and comprehensive manner possible to a scholar who has himself excavated in Cyprus and knows past and present conditions there intimately. He points out that we have to judge Cesnola's work not according to the standards of excavating to-day, but according to those prevalent at his time. Excavating was then for most people a fashionable amusement of the day rather than a scientific pursuit. People dug for spoils, not for the interpretation of history. It is true that the tide was beginning to turn and a new influence was making itself felt. But Cesnola's training as a soldier and a consul was no preparation for a scholarly excavator. As Professor Myres says, "With Cesnola's opportunities, an archæological genius had the chance to anticipate modern work by a generation; it was a pity—but no fault of Cesnola—that the United States consul in Cyprus was not an archæological genius."

Ægean Archæology. By H. R. Hall. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.75 net.

Since the day when Schliemann announced that he had found at Mycenæ the graves of Agamemnon and his companions, no discoveries have so excited the world of classical scholars and so interested the general reader as those made in Crete during the past fifteen years by a whole company of investigators, English, Italian, American, and Greek. Specialists have felt that the civilization which these explorers have revealed gave them a clue to many disputed questions of Greek pre-history; non-specialists have been impressed by the advanced character of this civilization, with its enormous palaces, its wealth of metal, its high development of all the arts that cater to comfort and to display. It is only natural, therefore, that, although the results of the most important of the excavations (those of Sir Arthur Evans at Knossos and those of Halbherr and Pernier at Phaistos) have not yet been completely published, several books have already appeared, in which the writers attempt to present a general picture of the prehistoric civilization of Greece in the light of the new evidence from Crete.

Of these books Mr. Hall's "Ægean Archæology" is the latest, and, it may be said at once, the best. Its superiority is partly due to its later date. In a field in which every year brings out many new monuments, every general book is bound to be partially out of date almost as soon as it is off the press. But Mr. Hall's book has many other claims to distinction. It steadfastly avoids the fascinating but difficult field of conjecture as to the origin of the "Minoans" and the "Mycenæans." It is well illustrated with plates and cuts in the text, chosen, as the Preface states, "upon the principle of illustrating among the major objects those more recently found which have not been illustrated before, and more especially those of American and foreign discovery which are either little known or entirely unknown to the English general reader, though they will be known to the special student." The reviewer confesses that this reference to American excavations warmed the cockles of his heart and prejudiced him in favor of the book. And Mr. Hall is as good as his word; the discoveries of Mrs. Hawes at Gournia, of Mr. Seager at Pseira and Mochlos, and of Miss Hall at Sphoungaras and Vrokastro are all mentioned and used to fill out the picture of the Ægean civilization. The arrangement of the book, too, is admirably clear and logical. An introductory chapter is devoted especially to explaining the "Minoan" system of chronology devised by Evans and the evidence, especially the Egyptian synchronisms, on which it is based. Then follow chapters on the excavations, stone and metal, pottery, towns, and so forth, covering briefly all the varied manifestations of the Ægean civilization.

The formality of this scheme may suggest a dry book, especially to those to whom archæology in general connotes little but dead men's bones and broken pots. But disappointment awaits the reader who opens the book with this expectation. Mr. Hall gives us the facts, but he knows how to emphasize what is interesting and to enliven his pages with suggestive ancient and modern parallels. The chapter on the excavations will recall to many a traveller the charm of Crete, quite apart from its ruins. In the chapter on temples and tombs, the weird and fantastic character of the Minoan religion is excellently brought out. A brief bibliography at the end gives the more serious reader the means of pursuing his study of Ægean civilization further.

To point out small errors may serve no other purpose than to reveal the pettiness of the reviewer's mind. Yet a protest must be registered against the number of careless slips which this book contains. It is confusing, to say the least, to find Schliemann's work at Mycenæ twice dated in 1878 (pages 8 and 9) and immediately afterwards in 1876 (p. 12); Schliemann began work at Troy in 1870, not in 1875, as is stated on page 8. There are other similar careless misstatements in regard to dates. A hostile critic might be tempted to suggest that Mr. Hall has dealt so long in approximate dates that he does not appreciate the desirability of exactness in such matters when it is possible. The accents of Greek words are treated in a cavalier fashion that would drive a school teacher to despair. And one feels a sort of personal grievance against the sentence (p. 179): "Their descendants remained true to the [true fresco] method, and not we find the Egyptian style of distempering adapted for a change." These are minor matters, but they give an impression of haste and carelessness which is unfortunate in so good a book.

RELIGION.

Louise Emery Tucker has compiled two handy volumes of Biblical extracts, "Readings from the Old Testament" and "The Old Testament Phrase-Book" (Sturgis & Walton; $1.25 net), both of them excellent for home and school.

A sympathetic critical sketch of the Syrian Moslem philosophic poet, Abu'l Ala (973-1058), is given by Henry Baerlein (Dutton; 70 cents), with selections, in English translation, from his poems. Abu'l Ala, a sort of poetically modified combination of Koheleth and Schopenhauer, was honored in his lifetime, and was, doubtless, one of the influences that contributed to the liberalization of Islam in certain quarters.

In "Jesus in the Talmud" (Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co.; 75 cents), Dr. Bernhard Pick cites certain Talmudic charges against Jesus (namely, that he was a bastard, a magician, and an idolater), notices of his disciples, and sayings parallel to his. The Talmud passages are given in full in English translation, and explanations of their origin are suggested. The charges against Jesus belong to the curiosities of legend, and are of interest only as showing a phase of Jewish feeling in the early centuries of our era. The little volume is carefully written, and gives useful information.

A more important study by Dr. Pick is "The Cabala" (Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co.; 75 cents), a description of the great Jewish theosophic movement that threatened at one time to displace the Talmudic legalistic system. Its development is traced from its faint beginnings to its culmination in the thirteenth century in the "Zohar," its subsequent enormous influence, and its decline and disappearance. The relation of the Cabalistic theory to the teaching of Maimonides is well brought out, and its glimpses of spiritual life are recognized along with its patent absurdities and its pernicious pretensions.

Professor S. J. Case, in his latest volume, entitled "The Evolution of Early Christianity" (University of Chicago Press; $2.25 net), undertakes a study of "the early Christians' career in the light of their own vital reaction upon their immediate environment as they worked out their religious problems in New Testament times" (p. 47). Two things are promised, a survey of the religious setting of the early Christians, particularly the Græco-Roman environment and a sketch of the evolution of primitive Christianity with especial reference to that setting. Of these two promises, the first is more adequately fulfilled than the second. At times, in fact, it is difficult to escape the impression that the book is an aggregation of essays which have not been completely adjusted to the promises made. This impression, however, does not affect the importance of the individual essays. On the contrary, there is perhaps no other book in English which gathers together under one cover so many points essential to an understanding of the New Testament in the light of the Græco-Roman world of the first century. The interest and the value of the volume increase as the reader nears the close, the last three chapters, treating respectively the religious significance of philosophical speculation, the Hellenistic religions of redemption, and the triumph of Christianity, being wholly admirable, both as exposition and as estimate. Well-selected bibliographical material accompanies the text. In a word, a competent scholar has come to the rescue of the reader who cannot hope to master at first hand the field surveyed. The indications of competence are so conspicuous that it is to be hoped that Dr. Case will in due time publish an exhaustive treatment not only of the Græco-Roman environment, but also of the growth of early Christianity, under the influence of that environment. In such a treatment, Philo, whose works are not discussed in the present survey, should have a prominent place.

Dr. H. F. Rall, president of the Iliff School of Theology at Denver, undertakes in his "New Testament History" (The Abingdon Press; $1.50 net) to write a textbook for col-

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lege students on the beginnings of Christianity with especial reference to the life and teaching of Jesus and Paul. The modern point of view is assumed, and what is more, acted upon throughout, both in matters literary and in matters historical. As to the former, his position is substantially that of Moffatt, except that our author holds that Ephesians was written by Paul and that Galatians was addressed to churches in southern Galatia. His historical attitude is indicated by the fact that he follows Paul rather than Acts at points where they differ, as, for example, in the conception of the conference at Jerusalem; that he prefers Paul's statements to those of the Gospels in regard to the resurrection of Jesus, remarking that the conviction of the living Christ is founded primarily not on the story of the appearances, not on historical argument or proof, but on personal moral experience (p. 142); and that he believes that the Fourth Gospel, which is "far more of a sermon than a biography," proposes "to join together the Jesus of Nazareth whom the Gospels set forth with the divine Christ whom Paul proclaimed, and to declare that these two were one" (p. 289). The book is admirably adapted to the purpose for which it is written; it is well proportioned, judicious, and readable. Here and there, however, the college instructor, we think, might reasonably demand a fuller treatment. For example, in the paragraph on Paul's central teaching (p. 285), something should have been said about the ideas of flesh and sin, and about the notion underlying the phrase "in Christ." Such an addition would have helped to explain the significant remark that "the Corinthian converts had no trouble in accepting the new doctrines and sacraments" (p. 231). We think, too, that a distinct section should have been devoted to a comparison of the teaching of Jesus and Paul regarding both the idea and the way of salvation. Dr. Rall is to be congratulated on the success of his undertaking, and with him the Methodist school over which he presides.

SCIENCE.

MATHEMATICS.

For persons who have had a substantial course in ordinary solid geometry, and who desire a scientific introduction into the theory of the next higher space, the best English work is Professor Manning's "Geometry of Four Dimensions" (Macmillan; $2 net). It is pure or synthetic, as distinguished from algebraic or analytic. Built on the basis of geometric knowledge that freshmen are supposed to acquire, the book has both the advantages and the disadvantages of not being a severely logical exposition based on a system of explicitly stated postulates. Of special interest is the introductory chapter, showing how, beginning with the speculations of Aristotle on the dimensionality of space, more than two thousand years were necessary to produce a clear notion of hyperspace, and an additional century to conquer the prejudices the concept encountered among philosophers and men of science. To-day multidimensional geometry is employed as an instrument in physics, and even in chemistry. If Professor Manning had chosen the projective instead of the metric point of view, he would have had greater freedom and his book would have been even fuller of surprises and beauty.

In Prof. H. J. M. Hill's "The Theory of Proportion" (D. Van Nostrand Co.; $2.50 net) we have an example of minutely critical work that should interest not only university teachers of mathematics, but high-school teachers as well. It is a presentation in modern light of one of Euclid's most troublesome conceptions. It would be a mistake to think the subject a small one. The treatment not only allies ancient with modern rigor, but connects a familiar notion with such recondite modern developments as the Dedekind doctrine of the continuum and the theory of the real variable.

Prof. Charles S. Slichter's "Elementary Mathematical Analysis" (McGraw-Hill Book Co.; $2.50 net) is intended for first-year college students. In bringing algebra, trigonometry, and analytical geometry into one volume in such a way as to show that they constitute single subject, the author represents a wholesome reaction against the traditional method by which the elements named were made to appear separate or insulated sciences. The emphasis rightly falls upon the supreme mathematical concept—the concept of function. By means of narrow margins, small type, and thin paper the book is made to appear much smaller than it really is.

It is a pleasure to handle such a book as Prof. James S. Stevens's "Theory of Measurements" (D. Van Nostrand Co.; $1.25 net), both on account of its physical and mechanical make-up and on account of its content. Designed for students of physics, it presents with admirable clearness and brevity the simpler laboratory means to precision and formulation. The graphical method is prominent, and the theory of chance is there, with its well-known human interest.

Every educated person ought to read Henri Poincaré's "Science and Method" (Scribner; $1.50 net). The translation, by Francis Maitland, is well done, though the term *géomètre* is repeatedly rendered "geometrician" in connections where it means mathematician. Hardly any one can appreciate the whole of these scientific and philosophic meditations of the greatest mind of our time, so wide is their range and so abstruse is much of the matter over which the great Frenchman's wit plays like lightning in the night. But every one will find parts of it intelligible and all of it stimulating. The reader should not fail to read attentively the magnanimous preface by Bertrand Russell, especially for the sake of the gentle reservation there made respecting the authority of Poincaré, who in his old age suffered himself to speak depreciatingly of one great subject which he had not taken the time and trouble to understand, namely, symbolic logic in its bearings upon the foundations of mathematics.

CHEMISTRY.

Industrial Chemistry: A Manual for the Student and Manufacturer. Edited by Allen Rogers. New York: D. Van Nostrand & Co. $5 net.

This is a second edition of the original work published in 1912, with Alfred B. Aubert as co-editor. Ten of the forty-nine chapters are new material; twelve of the former chapters have been revised, and twelve revised and enlarged, the size of the book being increased by two hundred pages. There are 305 illustrations—half-tones and mechanical drawings, sixty-two of which are new in this edition. The volume is an excellent example of typography, press-work, and binding; but the paper is unnecessarily heavy, and the book weighs six pounds.

The purpose of the book is to "assemble the ideas of a large number of men who are recognized authorities in their respective lines, and thus produce a volume which would represent modern American methods and processes"; and we find thirty-nine names in the list of collaborators—eight new contributors taking part in the work of this revision.

Thirty-one of the forty-nine chapters are devoted to industries dealing with organic materials and products. Laundering and the Hydrogenation of Oils are included and well treated, but we find some unexpected omissions, such as celluloid and bakelite. In the inorganic industries, metallurgy, except that of iron, is almost unconsidered. The methods of extracting and refining the other important metals are, for the most part, less fully treated than in most college textbooks of chemistry. Some important industrial chemicals are not considered at all.

In a work which is the product of many individuals one must expect considerable variety in the manner and method of treatment, and perhaps the most careful editing cannot avoid differences in the point of view. There is a marked failure in some of the chapters to present properly the chemical aspect of the subjects, the exposition being almost wholly devoted to the description of the mechanical processes and manipulations. A good deal of space is also occupied with lists and brief definitions of chemical compounds, which seems quite unnecessary, since the reader must be presumed to have a knowledge of elementary chemistry.

Not only is the manner of treatment of the various subjects very unequal, but there is lack of proportion in the space given to certain important industries. For instance: Sulphuric Acid is very fully treated in a chapter of seventy-two pages, in which the details of manufacture of this important substance by both the chamber and the contact processes are excellently described. But Soda receives an allotment of only four pages, and this as a sub-topic in the descriptive chapter on Elements and Compounds.

Occasionally, information of importance is missing. Thus in the chapter on Paper there is no reference to the "loading" of papers, and the student who is struck by the high specific gravity of this volume finds nothing which would lead him to suppose that such paper as that of which it is made contains 25 per cent. of inorganic matter.

The value of many of the illustrations would be increased if descriptive titles were given in all cases. The paragraph headings in the Contents are much in need of revision. In the first four chapters, especially, the order of topics is very different from that in the text, and some topics are listed which are not to be found in the chapters. Good bibliographies are appended to most of the chapters, though in a number of instances they are entirely omitted.

The book supplies a large amount of authoritative and up-to-date information, is almost entirely free from descriptions of old and obsolete processes, and gives chiefly the best American practice. On these accounts it will undoubtedly be widely used as a textbook for technical students and as a reference book in all laboratories and many manufacturing establishments. Frequent revisions are proposed, and consequently it has seemed the

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more worth while to call attention to certain faults and weaknesses in the present issue.

A book of "Laboratory Directions," designed to accompany Noyes's "Text-Book of Chemistry," has been compiled by Dr. Helen Isham Mattill (Holt; 50 cents). It contains directions for one hundred and sixteen numbered experiments, twenty of which are quantitative, and is illustrated by twenty line drawings. The experiments are of the usual type and the little book will be a convenient aid to instruction in classes where Noyes's text is used. It makes no wider appeal.

"Chemistry of Common Things," by Raymond B. Brownlee and three other high-school teachers of New York city (Allyn & Bacon; $1.50), "is designed to meet the growing demand that high-school courses should prepare the pupil for citizenship." The book contains 600 pages, and is divided into two parts. Part I consists of a brief discussion of the fundamental principles of the science and of practical topics of universal interest, such as the chemistry of heating and lighting, air and ventilation, water, the properties of metals, and food values. Part II contains, under twenty-four headings, a large amount of interesting information about many industries, constant attention being paid to the chemical point of view. This is intended to supply the special chemistry needed for first courses in industrial, technical, and agricultural schools, and from it the teacher is expected to select those chapters best adapted to his particular school. The text is fully supplemented by good illustrations. The authors, who are experienced teachers, have succeeded well in their purpose. The book is full of practical information, and the discussions of scientific principles and their applications are sound and clear. Some minor points might be criticised, but, on the whole, it is a very satisfactory introduction to the science. The absence of a systematic study of the elements and compounds unfits the book for use in meeting the present requirements for entrance in most colleges; but for the pupils who are not going to college it is unquestionably a more suitable textbook than those written with the college candidate in view.

An elementary textbook, under the title of "General Chemistry," by L. C. Newell (Heath; $1.20), contains two parts in a single cover, "Principles and Applications" and "Experiments." The second part, which is also published separately, consists of directions for 244 laboratory experiments, including a very few of a quantitative character. From the Preface we learn that the author's guiding thought has been that "principles and applications must go hand in hand"; that "the plea so long made that chemistry is practical and useful is now(!) being tested"; and that the student "must be taught in such a way that, should occasion arise, he can use chemistry in earning a living." The book contains a few more practical illustrations than some others of its class, and several pages on the chemistry of foods and nutrition; in other respects, it offers nothing that is not to be found in most other elementary chemistries. The author has not made himself very clear in his introductory statements about "substances," and chemical and physical changes, and he brings in his theoretical chapters (65 pages out of the first 152) with too small a background of facts. The whole treatment is almost entirely categorical, and while the book gives the usual information about the common elements and compounds, there is no orderly development of the subject and no direct attempt to give the student an appreciation of the scientific point of view.

PHYSICS.

"Smithsonian Physical Tables," prepared by Frederick E. Fowle (Sixth Revised Edition; The Smithsonian Institution), are so well known, and are of such proved accuracy and convenience, that it is necessary only to call attention to the fact that their thorough revision which was begun in the fifth edition has now been completed. As a set of tables for general use, this work probably has no superior.

Professors Millikan, Gale, and Bishop, of the University of Chicago, have prepared "A First Course in Laboratory Physics" for secondary schools (Ginn; 50 cents), to accompany their well-known and popular textbook on physics. The experiments are carefully arranged and clearly explained. It is quite safe to say that the book will be adopted by a large number of schools.

In these days when questions of the stability of ships in air and water are of great interest, the treatise on "The Stability and Equilibrium of Floating Bodies," by Bernard C. Laws (Van Nostrand Co.; $3.50), is very timely. A chapter is given to the general considerations of stability; then follow chapters on the stability of ships, submarines, floating docks, and air craft. The writer is an authority in the science of shipbuilding, and the text is largely derived from his own notes and experience.

Prof. W. S. Franklin and Prof. Barry MacNutt, of Lehigh University, have written a long series of textbooks on physics and mathematics which have been reviewed in these columns. In their latest text on "Advanced Electricity and Magnetism" (Macmillan; $2 net), they have exemplified again their purpose "to make the study of theoretical physics something besides a purely formal mathematical exercise." Professor Franklin has two important qualifications for carrying out this purpose; he knows what he wishes to do, and he can express his ideas vividly. Sometimes, he might attain his desire and yet not encourage a happy-go-lucky style of English, as when it is stated that "the character of the treatment in this book has been determined throughout by the desire to keep the student's mind jammed up tight against physical things." In classes where students are taking physics solely as a preparation to be engineers this textbook can be recommended; it is not so good for those who are learning the science as part of a general education. What has been said about the advanced textbook of these authors may be repeated even more strongly about their elementary book, "Elementary Electricity and Magnetism" (Macmillan; $1.25). Electricity and magnetism are treated as a "business proposition." Such a text as this is valuable when used solely as a fact and problem book. But there is certainly more to be derived from the study of the classic science of physics than an accurate knowledge of its practical applications. One may avoid pure speculation and yet not go to the other extreme.

"An Introduction to the Study of Physical Metallurgy," by Walter Rosenhain (D. Van Nostrand Co.; $3.50), is planned as the introductory volume to a series in which the metallurgy of the individual metals shall be separately treated. Its author has in charge the investigations in metallurgy in the National Physical Laboratory of Great Britain, an institution corresponding in a general way to the Bureau of Standards in Washington. The book is written on the basis of the newer methods of microscopic study with polished and often etched plates of metals and alloys, and with constant consideration of molecular behavior in the light of physical chemistry. These metallographic methods are first described. Continuing then with the micro-structure of pure metals, the author develops the more complicated relationships in alloys, touching on mutual solubilities, solid solutions, eutectics, and the diagrams and methods whereby these relations are expressed. In no branch involving the chemical relations of the elements does the doctrine of equilibrium in a chemical system come out with greater force. A discussion of several typical series of alloys closes Part I. Part II is devoted to the properties of metals as related to their structure and constitution. Methods of testing and significance of the results are outlined, so as to lead up to the physical effects of the tests on the structure. Heat treatment and mechanical treatment follow. A discussion of defects and failures in metals and alloys closes the work. The book is modern and clear, and has obviously been prepared by one well qualified in both physics and chemistry.

"An Introduction to the Study of Color Vision," by J. Herbert Parsons (Putnam; $3.75 net), is more than its title implies. It is a compilation of facts pertaining to the subject, and a résumé of the most important experiments and theories which touch upon the matter. It is written in a straightforward style, which does much to make the complicated evidence readable. The author has not dispensed with technicalities, and he has not been afraid to dwell upon the manifold complexities of the science. But he has set them forth simply and described them with such patient detail that they may be easily understood by the amateur. The book is divided into three sections: The Chief Facts of Normal Color Vision, The Chief Facts of Color Blindness, the Chief Theories of Color Vision—an admirable arrangement, particularly for reference. In the first division the author explains the most elementary principles of his subject. He clears up many points which would interfere with a proper understanding of the principal theories, describes the prevalent errors which have resulted from inconclusive experiments, touches upon misconceptions concerning the mixing of colors, and gives their exact relations. The arc light is shown to be the best medium for experiment, since the source of light must be constant. Sunlight varies, and is therefore untrustworthy. The absorption of different rays by the atmosphere, the amount of matter suspended in the air, influence profoundly the conditions of any experiments with the spectrum. Before treating in detail the question of color blindness, Dr. Parsons describes briefly the structure of the eye and the power of accommodation. He shows, also, the structure of the eyes of reptiles, amphibia, and birds, and the influence of

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the colored oil globules found in the cones. The part which memory plays in color-sensations is explained, and a great many miscellaneous facts are touched upon: the possibility that certain ancient civilizations made no color distinctions, and that color blindness may be an atavism. The question of eye fatigue is treated elaborately, with quotations from experiments. The many theories contained in the third division of Dr. Parsons's book treat of various phases of the subject. They are put forward in full, without bias, and contribute much to a remarkably clear and comprehensive work.

MEDICINE AND BACTERIOLOGY.

Prof. Hans Zinsser has performed a marked service for all who are interested in medical advance in preparing a readable and clear presentation of the bewildering tangle of facts and theories connected with disease and immunity to it ("Infection and Resistance." Macmillan; $3.50 net). He has not made the mistake of simplifying at the expense of accuracy, and has recognized the important fact that, however quickly discordant results fall into place in the mind of the specialist, their significance becomes a work of labor to the intelligent but non-scientific layman. In the interest of clearness, therefore, he has attempted, and successfully, to separate data which may be accepted as facts, from those of more speculative nature about which legitimate differences of opinion exist. The general plan of presentation is well conceived. The reader is introduced to a world of microorganisms which in one way or another gain entrance into the human body. He learns about the hostile reception which such invaders receive and about the aggressive campaign on the part of the invaders to overcome such resistance of the host. Bacterial invaders in some cases, he finds, are met successfully by an engulfing army of phagocytes; others come provided with a chemical coat-of-mail which renders them impervious to attack by the organic constabulary of the host, whereupon allies, in the form of sera are introduced into the host, the chemical coating is reduced, and the phagocytes then gain a triumphant victory. Or, in the case of another type of invaders, he finds that specific toxins are produced by the invading army which are countered by equally specific anti-toxins produced by the host; while after successful termination of the conflict, the host maintains a standing army of anti-toxin which insures future immunity against the particular foe. All of these actions and counter-actions are told in scientific language, which, always clear and free from pedantry, is a real pleasure to read.

Profs. W. A. Riley and O. A. Johannsen have published a very useful book of information and reference in connection with human pests and parasites ("Handbook of Medical Entomology"; Ithaca: The Comstock Publishing Company; $2). Written in an attractive and interesting style, it tells not only the well-known stories of malaria and yellow fever and their transmission by mosquitoes, but many other instances of human ills transmitted by arthropods. The bites of scorpions, spiders, mites, and ticks, the last named sometimes causing temporary or even complete paralysis; the stings of "electric-light bugs," of bees, wasps, hornets, and other insects; the dermatitis caused by nettling insects like the Io moth and the brown-tail moth, and the more serious dangers from biting and piercing flies are all described, together with many details of reactions and treatment. Fleas, lice, chiggers, and their relations to man and disease receive full attention, while the myth of the "kissing bug," even, is explained. A key to genera and species and many illustrations will be useful in determining the nature of biting or parasitic insects and arachnids.

ZOOLOGY.

Embryology, like all other branches of morphology, was eagerly studied by hosts of observers when the biological world was stimulated to unwonted activity by the Darwinian doctrines. It was found that the human embryo, at one stage in development, possesses remarkable structures which resemble the gill slits of fishes and has the same arrangement of the heart and the arterial vessels; the tadpole of the frog also was known to have an organization which remains permanent in amphibia lower in the scale. These and other similar phenomena were found to recur in the development of many kinds of animals and were grouped together in a general proposition which Haeckel expressed under the name of the "Fundamental Law of Biogenesis" "The development history (ontogeny) of an individual animal briefly recapitulates the history of the race (phylogeny); *i. e.*, the most important stages of organization which its ancestors have passed through appear again, even if somewhat modified, in the development of individual animals." With the general acceptance of the doctrine of evolution the study of embryology as a basis for phylogenies fell into the background and in its place a more critical analytical science grew up, first along the lines of cell lineage, later along the lines of experimental embryology. The former in the hands of Whitman and of Wilson, and the latter in the hands of Loeb, Delage, Morgan, and a long line of modern embryologists, became an instrument in the analysis of vital activities in their relations to the individual and with little regard for ancestral characteristics, a point of view which is equally emphasized in the most modern development of biological science-genetics.

Prof. E. W. MacBride returns to the older method of embryology ("Textbook of Embryology," edited by Walter Heape; Vol. I, "Invertebrata." Macmillan; $6 net). He follows throughout the descriptive method and regards all but the phylogenetic point of view as of secondary importance. Experimental embryology is treated as "an adjunct and not an alternative to comparative embryology." This point of view is followed consistently throughout the entire 663 pages of descriptive matter which is admirably illustrated by 468 figures. In each phylum of invertebrates at least one type is chosen for detailed description of the developmental processes, or when the phylum is sufficiently large, one type from each class is selected. On the basis of this detailed description, or descriptions, the phylogeny of the entire phylum is considered. Professor MacBride approaches his task with wide experience and the descriptive part is well done and will be most useful, but the phylogenies at the ends of the chapters, like all such attempts in the past, will impress the student as highly speculative and incapable of crucial experimental proof.

Prof. H. W. Shimer has taken advantage of a real opportunity for useful service by bringing out the first American textbook of elementary palæontology, "An Introduction to the Study of Fossils: Plants and Animals" (Macmillan; $2.40 net). With excellent training in zoölogy the author recognizes that a vital interest in fossils can be imparted only by associating extinct forms with their present-day living relatives. A general account of the essential structures, both soft and hard parts, is given of some typical living example of each important group of fossils. To this is added some idea of the response of the living organisms to their environments and a brief sketch in each case of the method of reproduction. The diction, which is relatively simple, technical terms being avoided as much as possible, and unusually good figures, combine to make this a useful contribution to palæontology.

"The Germ-Cell Cycle in Animals," by Robert W. Hegner (Macmillan; $1.75 net), is the elaboration of a course of lectures given to a class of advanced pupils in cellular biology at the University of Michigan. The matter has been enlarged and illustrated, so that it actually forms a résumé of present knowledge. The author deals with all the phenomena concerned with the origin and history of the germ-cells from one generation to the next, and, as his title indicates, confines his attention to animals. It is essentially a study of the infinitely small, of ultra-microscopic activities, which are at the same time, perhaps, the most significant and startling in the organic world. In the study of breeding, especially of hybridization and of genetics, these activities are of dominant importance. The individuality of treatment is apparent in the relegation to a comparatively subordinate consideration of the well-known maturation processes of spermatozoa and eggs, and, conversely, the emphasis placed on the segregation of the germ-cells in the developing egg and the visible substances concerned in this process. This is an equally important but much less understood phase, and its preferred treatment is as well considered as it is illuminating. Especially are we indebted to Professor Hegner for his thorough discussion of the visible special inclusions in the cytoplasm of the ovum, whether nuclear or extra-cellular in origin. An introductory chapter deals with The Cell, Cell Division, Methods of Reproduction, Germ Cells and Life Cycles. The concluding chapter contains a discussion of the germ-plasm theory. The volume ends with an excellent bibliography and a less satisfactory index. The illustrations are numerous and fulfil their purpose.

It would be a great injustice if "Economic Zoölogy and Entomology," written by Prof. V. L. Kellogg and Prof. R. W. Doane (Holt) should fall into the category of textbooks. For, while it is a book admirably adapted to teaching purposes, it is much more. It presents a wide field of knowledge which deserves a wider circle of readers than the schoolroom provides. It is concerned not only with zoölogy and entomology, but with the economic and philosophical aspects of these sciences. It is a book written with imagination and considerable ingenuity. Interest is aroused by the manner in which facts are presented, and the attention is held throughout, because all forms of life are treated in their relation to man or in their relation to evolution. The book is so admir-

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ably arranged, so well indexed and paragraphed, that reference to particular subjects is made an easy matter. The work, furthermore, is written concisely, but not as an encyclopædia, and the style is direct and individual. It is impossible to estimate the material included in this volume. Hundreds upon hundreds of creatures, their structure, habits, distinguishing characteristics, relations to like creatures and to man, are explained in detail, with profuse illustrations. Their scientific status is given, and their injurious and economic properties. One of the most important chapters is a brief summary of evolution, which is a noteworthy example of condensation and clarity.

Anglo-Saxon students of evolution will welcome Mr. Hugh Elliot's sympathetic translation of J. B. Lamarck's "Zoölogical Philosophy" (Macmillan; $4), one of the greatest contributions to the subject. The teachings of Lamarck have undergone many vicissitudes—both of acceptation and rejection, and in neo-Lamarckism, of adaptation to more modern beliefs. His factors of organic evolution are, in brief, changes in the environment, direct and indirect, in the case of plants and in the higher animals, respectively; the use and disuse of organs, and the transmission of acquired characters. The last factor, especially, has been looked upon askance by recent students, and evidence of its occurrence is extremely doubtful. Nevertheless, with the data at his command, Lamarck was eminently justified in believing in this theory. And its conception and clear definition as he saw it was an achievement possible only to a mind which we must denominate as a genius. Indeed, the existence of some correlated organic process in inheritance seems to us to-day almost certain. Of its exact nature we have as yet not the slightest clue, and whether in hormones we may hope to find some justification, or whether we must await the discovery of a still more intangible process, we cannot tell. The publication of a translation of Lamarck's work hints of a broadening of the modern point of view, a willingness to reconsider theories which may contribute at least indirectly to the great problem. One hundred and six years ago, when Lamarck completed his "Zoölogical Philosophy," he showed his conservatism and fairmindedness in his final paragraph:

> In spite of the errors into which I may have been led, the work may possibly contain ideas and arguments that will have a certain value for the advancement of knowledge, until such time as the great subjects, with which I have ventured to deal, are treated anew by men capable of shedding further light upon them.

A full half-century before Darwin's "Origin of Species" appeared, this brilliant work of Lamarck was neglected, and twenty years later, after an old age of blindness, he died without honor. It is beyond the scope of this review to consider Lamarck's work as a whole. This has been under the fire of criticism and subjected to the analysis of scores of writers on evolution. Throughout the years succeeding his life work Lamarck has had many doughty champions wholly or in part agreeing with his more general views: Spencer, Haeckel, Cope, Allen, Gadow, Hertwig, and many others. Mr. Elliot has provided over ninety pages of introduction. Instead of modernizing the ponderous, redundant style of scientific writing of over a century ago, he has chosen wisely to make as literal a translation as possible, presenting a brief *précis* of the whole work. The index of the volume is entirely inadequate to the complexity and importance of the text.

BOTANY.

"Flora of the Vicinity of New York," by Norman Taylor, Curator at the Brooklyn Botanic Garden (published as the fifth volume of the "Memoirs of the New York Botanical Garden, 1915"), is an octavo volume of almost 700 pages, and contains an exhaustive list of the flowering plants and ferns which occur near the city of New York. When applied to a book, the word "Flora" is usually understood to mean a book in which the plants of a given district are systematically described, and not merely listed. This volume does not describe the plants of the district, but it is a very full and minute catalogue. It is therefore a distinct and valuable contribution to plant geography. The author by going very far afield in noting the range of the plants, has added greatly to the usefulness of the volume.

The change in method and scope of agricultural treatises during the last few decades is well shown by comparing the useful work by Secretary Flint on "Grasses and Forage Plants" in the early sixties, with the latest American work in the same field, "A Textbook of Grasses," by A. S. Hitchcock (Macmillan; $1.50 net). Professor Hitchcock was for a time in the Kansas Agricultural College and is now systematic agrostologist in the Department of Agriculture at Washington. His useful treatise is designed primarily for the students in our numerous agricultural schools, and it is well adapted to that end. But those persons also who wish to get merely a general notion of this interesting family of plants will find the volume valuable; it will prove an aid to those who desire to prepare successfully that most charming adjunct to the suburban home, the lawn.

In a convenient book of one hundred and fifty pages, entitled "A Spring Flora for High Schools," by Henry C. Cowles and J. G. Coulter (American Book Co.; 60 cents), the authors have undertaken a task which requires much courage. They have chosen from the vast number of species of flowering plants growing in the North-Central and Eastern United States, about four hundred, blooming in spring or early summer, which they think are likely to be within reach of high-school pupils. Such selection is very hazardous, since the experience of teachers shows that the plants which are brought by pupils to the schoolroom are very often the very ones which are not mentioned in the small compends. Hence disappointment follows. The key constructed by the authors is admirable and will enable the average teacher to keep one day ahead of his class. He can easily single out the species which his pupils are sure to meet.

One of the best hand-books of its kind is Prof. L. H. Bailey's "Plant Breeding," which was first published in the late eighties, and is now reprinted with many important changes under the editorship of Prof. A. W. Gilbert (Macmillan; $2 net). The treatise begins with a well-considered account of the existence and philosophy of plant-variation, and dwells to a proper extent upon the modern methods of measuring the variations. This prepares the way for a short but sufficient presentation of the question of "Mutations," or the sudden appearance of varieties fitted to take rank at the outset as stable species. The patient work of Mendel and the immense influence which this work has had and still has upon the improvement of cultivated plants are presented with skill and with true perspective. Concrete examples are fully described, and then follow explicit directions for the crossing of plants. At this point most books would close. But the authors have seen fit to enrich their volume by a good glossary of the extremely technical terms employed in "Plant Breeding," and by three long lists of literature accessible to those interested in the matter. After this come fifty pages or more of practical exercises in plant breeding, which we venture to say will prove a surprise to those who approach the subject seriously for the first time. Some of the formulæ look at the outset as if they had escaped unharmed from a treatise of conic sections or higher algebra, but all of them belong rightly to the *new* plant breeding.

On a different basis, but with a similar end in view, Professor Coulter, of the University of Chicago, has framed his "Fundamentals of Plant-Breeding" (Appleton; $1.50 net). In general it will be found a valuable adjuvant to the volume above referred to, for it goes a little further afield in certain directions, as, for instance, in regard to forestry and plant diseases. In connection with this work may be mentioned another by the same author upon a cognate subject, "The Evolution of Sex in Plants" (University of Chicago Press; $1 net). It is a little volume of rather more than a hundred pages dealing with this interesting topic in a clear and, on the whole, a satisfactory manner. Like all that Professor Coulter writes, it is lucid and concise.

FARMING AND HORTICULTURE.

The study of agriculture is now an established part of the curriculum in many of our high schools, normal schools, and colleges, as well as in all our State universities. Prof. Garland Armor Bricker's handbook, "Agricultural Education for Teachers" (American Book Co.; 80 cents), is intended to help the many teachers who have suddenly awakened to the new demands upon them, and also to be a guide to the district and county superintendent and the supervisor of rural or agricultural education.

The text of "The Principles of Irrigation Practice," by John A. Widtsoe, president of Utah Agricultural College (Macmillan; $1.75), might well be Isaiah's words: "And the parched ground shall become a pool, and the thirsty land springs of water." As a record of man's age-long efforts towards cooperation with Nature to make her waste places glad, the History of Irrigation, brief as it must be in a volume of this size, is inspiring. The purpose of the book is unassumingly stated; it is to furnish "to students and intelligent farmers a modern view of the principles of irrigation practice." Written first of all for the farmer who, in the vernacular of irrigated lands, "lives year after year under the ditch, and raises his family there," it is simply worded and free from unnecessary technical terms. President Widtsoe's earlier book, "Dry-Farming," and the present volume form a continuous study of the factor of water in agriculture. Utah Agricultural College from its situation in the heart of the arid region, has found it expedient to

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offer a half-year course in dry-farming, followed by a half-year course in the practice of irrigation, thus giving a year's study of the factor of water in agriculture. This "water factor" President Widtsoe ranks as perhaps the most important of the physical factors, and he suggests that agricultural schools, whether in arid or humid regions, might profitably organize classes in this subject. The author's introduction explains in simplest terms the general question of irrigation. The second section, under the head of Relation of Water to Soils, deals with equal simplicity and in great detail with Soil Moisture, The Soil as a Water Reservoir, Saving Water by Cultivation, and Soil Changes Due to Irrigation Water. Section three takes up The Relation of Water to Plants, and is followed by a careful and detailed study of Crops Under Irrigation, including cereals, alfalfa, and other forage crops, sugar-beets, potatoes, and miscellaneous crops, fruit trees and others, as well as shrubs. Under a section headed Miscellaneous have been grouped informative chapters treating of various matters related to the irrigation problem, like Duty, Measurement and Division of Water, Over-Irrigation and Alkali, Irrigation in Humid Climates, Irrigation Tools and Devices. At the close of this miscellaneous section there are two intensely interesting chapters on The History of Irrigation and Permanent Agriculture under Irrigation. It is a far journey from the print on page 6 showing a Papago squaw in Arizona utilizing the drip from her water-bottle to grow a few onion plants beneath to the illustration on page 458 of irrigation canals cut through the mountains, and further, on p. 466, to the view of the Utah Experiment Station, where these waters are harnessed and trained to feed and sustain man. And one who traces this journey will find himself reviewing a very interesting and profitable stretch of the highway of civilization.

The profits of fruit farming are greater than those of general farming, but so are the risks, as Francis Newton Thorpe demonstrates in his book, "An American Fruit Farm" (Putnam; $2.50 net). It is a volume based on a quarter of a century's experience on a prosperous fruit farm, on the Lake Erie shore in Pennsylvania; not a systematic textbook, but a series of informal talks, crammed with useful hints, on such subjects as selecting the fruit farm; planting the trees; how to obtain and get along with help; feeding the land; the fruit-farm and the young people; the fruit-farm and old age. The author illustrates the amazing possibilities of intensive culture; eight tons of grapes to the acre, or five hundred bushels of cherries, or three tons of gooseberries. The fruit valleys of various States are briefly described to aid men in selecting a farm scientifically, which few do. The most important and interesting chapter is one on birds and the fruit farm, an eloquent discourse on the topic: "No Birds Means No Fruit, No Crops, No Food." It has been calculated that, assigning but one pair of birds to every acre in the United States would mean the consumption in four months of more than 3,600,000 tons of insects and worms. Hence the author's admonition: "Make the fruit farm a bird sanctuary."

"Productive Horse Husbandry," by Carl W. Gay, is one of a series on animal husbandry included in Lippincott's Farm Manuals, and treats of the production and marketing of horses and mules along better business lines than have usually prevailed. The raising of horses and mules has always been encouraged by the general Government, and the Agricultural Department is endeavoring to standardize the horses to conform with the demands of the market. Much has been accomplished in the elimination of scrub stock and the development of types best adapted to particular localities, but there are and always will be many elements of chance in the horse business which do not pertain to cattle-raising. Professor Gay has rendered a real service to those who breed horses for the market in placing before them in terms easily understood the standards of economic efficiency which must obtain to raise and market horses with profit. The various types and breeds of horses are treated of historically and in a manner to fix in the memory the standard to be striven for if success in a competitive market is the goal. The confirmation and judging of the horse are matters of knowledge not to be picked up on the average farm, but with a careful study of the chapters devoted to those subjects in this volume definite ideas may be absorbed and readily put into practice. As practically every horse offered in the markets for sale is subjected to careful inspection, the breeder should have a definite knowledge of the defects which impair values and endeavor to cull from his herds all which would tend to depreciate the standards he has in mind. Professor Gay has assembled information in one volume which would, if diffusely prepared, require a small library. The illustrations are numerous and excellent, and altogether the volume is worthy of a permanent place among farm manuals.

Women looking for a new profession will be interested in the suggestion made by Mrs. Francis King that there is need of a new kind of garden specialist distinct from the landscape architect, namely, the garden colorist, an occupation specially suited to women because of their fine color sense. Women's garden clubs are coming into existence all over the country, and they need advice as to color arrangements and harmony. This idea is one of the main theses in Mrs. King's book, "The Well-Considered Garden" (Scribner; $2 net). She is president of the Women's National Agricultural and Horticultural Association, and her volume contains the results of a wide experience. While color harmonies are her "leading motive," she also touches informingly on diverse other problems that present themselves to amateur gardeners. There is a chapter on trained gardeners, and what wealthy families ought to pay them. The author has succeeded in making even her bibliographic appendix interesting. "Necessities and Luxuries in Garden Books" it is headed, and in its eighteen pages she gives brief characterizations of many of the best American and English volumes on gardening.

GENERAL SCIENCE.

There have been a good many attempts to present in a concise manner, for general reading or for elementary study, the principal facts in regard to the earth. Some of these comprehensive treatises are extremely attractive and well proportioned. But it would be difficult to mention any little volume which has so wide a range and which possesses so good a perspective as the "First Year Science," by Dr. William H. Snyder (Allyn and Bacon; $1.25. If it were not stated in the preface that the book has been tested in schools, one would be rather inclined to think that its scope were a little too wide. It covers, or rather it touches, all the subjects of science, which have in these later years been thrust in among the three R's. They are Physics, Astronomy, Meteorology, Chemistry, Physiography, Physiology, Botany, Zoölogy, and Agriculture including Forestry. Specialists in these subjects can here and there pick a flaw, or criticise unfavorably the treatment of the special bit of information presented, but it should be generously admitted that the author has been skilful in his selections and felicitous in his language.

BUSINESS MANAGEMENT.

It is a far cry from the primitive industrial family to the modern unlimited or limited joint-stock company, and perhaps a farther one from the Roman *collegia* to a holding corporation like some of our modern colossi; but this implied evolution is traced for the benefit of college students in a new textbook by Prof. Lewis H. Haney, of the University of Texas (Macmillan; $2 net). This book, "Business Organization and Combination," may be considered both as a textbook and as a contribution to the literature of the subject. In the former aspect, like previous publications by the same author, it is written in a clear and interesting way, neither confusing the student with a mass of technical terms and legal terminologies nor attempting to give him any legal, social, political, or commercial interpretation to suit a personal bias. Professor Haney keeps consistently in view throughout the main purpose, which is to trace the development of business organization both historically and logically, bringing out the distinctive characteristics of the various forms of partnerships, agreements, associations, corporations, and so on, with comment upon the advantages and disadvantages of each from the private as well as from the social point of view. Due consideration is given to the principal factors, such as the desire to raise capital more easily, introduce economies into operation, control sources of raw materials and markets, eliminate competition, and escape liability and publicity. In commenting upon the advantages and disadvantages of various business organizations the author naturally expresses personal opinions, and the sum total of his conclusions is epitomized in the latter part of the book under the general head of Public Policy: The Corporation and Trust Problems. His remedies imply a broad recognition of the fact that such continuous striving on the part of business men to effect certain results by turning from one legal form to another in order to escape penalties suggests that possibly our legislation should be more constructive in the way of determining the extent to which monopoly, restriction of competition, price maintenance, and other factors have value from the social point of view and should be legalized within restrictions that will safeguard the interests of society.

The author recommends recognition of natural monopolies and provision for their existence under proper regulation and suggests the creation of an industrial commission under which there should be general and uni-

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form regulation of corporations doing interstate business of importance to society. With this he would couple a Federal incorporation law, though he would not make it compulsory. Simplification of securities, limits upon the power of officers and directors to transfer and acquire holdings of stock in corporations which they serve, limitation of the life of a proxy, greater protection to the rights of stockholders, cumulative voting, and other things are suggested as possible remedies for present abuse of the powers of a corporation. Professor Haney distinguishes between what he calls the corporation problem and the Trust problem, the latter being wholly economic and dealing with big business in the broadest sense of the term. He does not consider over-capitalization as being guilty of all that has been charged to it, but recommends full publicity as to the amount of prior-lien securities and the exact character of the assets, as well as a regulation of accounts to insure the proper maintenance of the plant. He would also recommend that holding companies should not—as at present—prove a means of acquiring control over a large number of different business organizations by men representing only a small proportion of the total value of the stock. As neither the partnership nor the corporation seems entirely suitable to many enterprises, he suggests the introduction of the limited liability association, which has been recognized in Prussia since 1891, where the laws provide for *Gesellschaften mit beschränkter Haftung*. The book presents an unusual amount of illustrative material and is followed by an appendix giving the articles of co-partnership, articles of a joint-stock company, by-laws of a corporation, trade conditions, agreements, and various other forms of associations and agreements, amalgamations, mergers, promoters' contracts, and so on.

Those persons who read the last chapter of a book first are sometimes the wisest. In the case of Amos Kidder Fiske's "Honest Business" (Putnam; $1.25 net), one's eagerness is certainly heightened by such a course. In his peroration the writer tells us that in large affairs, where direct personal relations are not involved, the standard of business conduct is still one of semi-barbarism, savoring of the primitive instinct for plunder. If we were not otherwise interested in the subject, we should feel impelled to read the previous chapters to see if he had really made out a case. While it may be conceded that the facts on which he rests his argument are real and pertinent facts, it is conceivable that he has not exhausted all the considerations which enter into the problem. Be that as it may, however, this treatise is so full of shrewd common-sense utterances, many of them exceedingly pithy, that we feel ourselves in his debt. We cordially accept his definition of "public opinion." Public opinion is not an emanation from the mass of a people, proportioned to their number and proceeding with equal effect from all the members. There is as much inequality in begetting and propagating opinion as in all other capacities. Public opinion is not a wind that bloweth where it listeth, but a force that can be aroused, trained, and directed. Of Socialism he says: "Agitation on the lines of Socialism will never cease until all human nature becomes well balanced and reason holds its seat in all minds except those which will be recognized and treated as disordered." These twenty-three chapters on the factors (at present so conflicting) that constitute the problem of modern industry are all permeated by this philosophy.

Teachers of commercial subjects have been waiting for a book that should have something more in it than pictures of office fixtures and bookkeeping forms, intermixed perhaps with platitudinous dissertations on culture versus vocational training. The authors of "Principles and Methods in Commercial Education" (Joseph Kahn and Joseph J. Klein; Macmillan; $1.40 net) have given us something practical and tangible as well as philosophical. The book is divided into three parts; "Principles," "Special Methods," and "Special Problems." The second part is of particular value to the teacher. Here are chapters on Business Arithmetic, Office Practice and Routine, Bookkeeping, Accounting, Commercial Geography, Technique of Commerce, History of Commerce, Commercial Law, Economics, Business English, Stenography and Typewriting. Each of these subjects is approached and treated according to the general scheme given in the chapter on bookkeeping: Pedagogical Basis—Place in Course—Literature—Aim of Course—The Teacher—The Text Book—Model Lessons—Drafts—Exercises in Constructive Imagination, Special Devices—Bookkeeping Ethics—Notes on Method, covering the Recitation, Home Preparation Reviews, Quizzes, and Examinations. The chapter is rounded out with a syllabus, a summary, exercises, and a bibliography. If one opens this volume with a doubt because of its pretensions—it is described as written for teachers, students, and business men—one closes it with the feeling that the authors have established their case in the clear distinction which they have made between preparation for carrying on business and preparation for recording business. This is the distinction which has been lacking in most books on commercial education. It is the difference between preparing men for a career and training them for a job.

In "Keeping up with Rising Costs" (A. W. Shaw Co.; $1 net), by Mr. Wheeler Sammons, of the editorial staff of *System*, the author analyzes the retailer's cost of doing business and tells him just what percentage should be sufficient to cover rent, heat and light, salaries, advertising, bad debts, etc. The book is unique in that it is based on actual figures supplied by 1,560 business concerns, including dealers in groceries, vehicles and implements, hardware, clothing, as well as dry goods, shoes, drugs, jewelry, department stores and mail-order houses. Tables, charts, and graphic analyses add greatly to the interest of the book. In looking these over one is struck by the close resemblance of the figures given for the various lines. Thus, in every case but one bad debts run less than 1 per cent. of sales. Retailers generally will find this book helpful in that it sets up a standard of comparison. Mr. Sammons takes up each item in turn and points out the leaks that mean profits or failure. He does not touch upon that bugbear of most business executors, "distribution of overhead." That is the peril of averages—that one overlooks the necessary variation, and even in a retail business it is advisable to know not only average costs and totals, but the comparative distribution of cost elements against different lines carried in stock. The moral of Mr. Sammons's book is that retail efficiency implies larger volume of business and frequent turnovers at a lower percentage of net profit in each sale than was formerly the case. The book is written in a clear and straightforward style, and is interesting and instructive.

E. St. Elmo Lewis is always an entertaining and instructive writer on business topics, and is well up to his own standard in his latest book, "Getting the Most Out of Business" (The Ronald Press Company; $2 net). He states at the outset that he intends to discuss efficiency in its application to business practice, and one is immediately thereafter confronted with a twelve-page table of contents, subdivided into twelve parts, thirty-eight chapters, and about four hundred topical sub-headings. All this, resulting in 483 pages devoted to business and personal efficiency, is alarming; but Mr. Lewis is able to discuss men, methods, principles, organizations, and business philosophy without appearing to "talk shop" or to pose as an oracle. His paragraphs are pointed and relieved by humorous touches and apt illustrations. He divides business mankind into the "rule-of-thumb man," "the practical or systematic man," and the "scientific or efficient man," and makes a strong plea for the new science of establishing general principles from ascertained facts and applying those principles to human nature and human enterprise. The theories of business advanced are fundamentally correct, and there are many pointed references which executors can profitably take to heart in their dealings with customers, employees, and co-workers.

There is perhaps no more significant indication of the changes taking place beneath the surface of American business than the multiplication of books on accounting. Some of these, it must be confessed, do not fit the definition given in the preface to the new and revised edition of "Accounts, Their Construction and Interpretation," by Prof. W. M. Cole, of Harvard (Houghton Mifflin; $2.25 net). It is all the more refreshing to note the continued demand for a book like Professor Cole's, which lives up to its own definition of accounting as "sublimated common-sense applied to finding and telling the truth about business." That many so-called systems do not tell the truth is doubtless because the separation of items is not based upon the *purpose* of the accounting, but on the *object* with which expense chances to be identified. Professor Cole makes very clear not only the basic method of accounting, but also the principles of common-sense on which they should rest. The application to railways, insurance, municipalities, manufacturing, and banking is covered in detail. The book begins by establishing the general principles of good bookkeeping, and contains appendices in which that initial chapter is supplemented by further information concerning forms and methods, as good accounting must be based on specific business needs. The book does not go deeply into details of method, except to illustrate fundamental principles, as, for example, the importance of properly considering the time element in distributing factory burden, or of proper classification to distinguish between contracts which may profitably be handled on a basis of direct cost only (for some special reason) and those which must bear their full share of fixed expense.

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The value of a system of cost depends upon the degree to which it facilitates executive control, and the fact that this is so clearly emphasized in Professor Cole's book entitles the volume to the consideration of business men, and of those who invest their earnings in securities depending on industry, or are otherwise interested in the accounting which businesses make to the general public.

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